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ABSTRACT

Arranged in two parts, this guide introduces elementary and secondary social studies teachers to a variety of methods for integrating social studies content and basic skills instruction. Chapter I defines basic skills as the skills an individual needs to become a self-directed learner, communicate clearly, and make reasoned decisions, and presents a social studies context for teaching these skills. A table lists College Board basic academic competencies, each tagged to recommended teaching strategies. Student and teacher goals for citizenship education are also provided. Chapter II contains 31 strategies to promote basic academic skills. Strategies covered include textbook orientation, directed reading, SQ3R reading method, cloze procedure, analogies, anticipation and prediction, decision-making, attentive listening, the "sponge activity," content area writing, sequencing, and time lines. A list of strategies is cross-referenced by purpose and function. A one-page list of resources concludes the publication. For each strategy, grade levels, purpose, variations, discussion and source information are provided. (LP)

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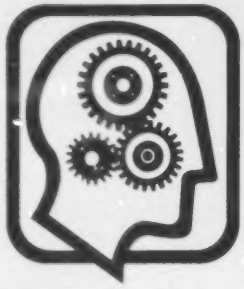
# The Social Studies

*Practical strategies for teaching basic skills in conjunction with social studies content*



# Basic Skills Connection

S SP 015 755

**Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education**
**Arthur L. Mallory, Commissioner of Education**
**1982**

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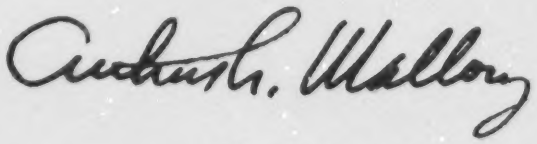
# FOREWORD

Assuring students' competence in basic skills is a priority of Missouri's State Board of Education. This guide, by showing concrete ways basic skills can be emphasized in one subject area, can be an effective tool for teachers in fulfilling another priority that is so obvious we often fail to state it: preparing our young people to become more competent as citizens in an increasingly complex and interdependent world.

By emphasizing effective application of basic skills (reading, writing, computing and interpreting) in connection with content courses, I am convinced we can raise academic standards. To be truly competent in the basic skills, students must use and practice these skills regularly and with a certain "rigor." The subject of social studies provides an excellent context in which students can apply and sharpen their basic skills.

Many teachers have reviewed drafts of this publication and they reacted favorably to the ideas and suggested activities included. Teachers also expressed the opinion that a guide such as this is "much needed." While these activities relate specifically to social studies, the ideas could be adapted for use in other content areas as well.

We are pleased to make this book available for Missouri educators and grateful to those people who contributed to it: members of the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education; the Parkway School District, which was generous in sharing ideas from its project, "Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies"; and to the many others who offered constructive suggestions.



Commissioner of Education

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# Chapter 1
# Social Studies and Basic Skills

## Why a Social Studies-Basic Skills Connection? Why this Publication?

Two fundamental purposes of public education in a democracy are to teach students basic skills and to teach students the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for effective, responsible citizenship. Social studies as a subject in the school curriculum is very much related to the second purpose. It draws ideas from such subject areas as history, the social sciences, and the humanities to help students understand their heritage and become effective in directing and enriching that heritage for coming generations.

An important question facing teachers of social studies is whether they also have some responsibility regarding the first purpose of education listed above. Before we answer that question some terms need to be defined.

*Basic skills* in this publication refers to those skills that an individual needs in order to become a self-directed learner, to communicate clearly with others, and to make reasoned decisions. In 1981, The College Board drafted a set of "Basic Academic Competencies" that is consistent with this notion of basic skills and is also compatible with many of the instructional objectives found in publications of the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. The Basic Academic Competencies apply to all students, not just the college-bound. Those that seem pertinent to social studies may be found in Table I (pp. 2-5).

*Knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for effective, responsible citizenship* have been identified in goal statements in the publications *A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators* (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980) and "Effective Citizenship Education: A Basic Goal of Education in the United States" (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1976). Both sets of goals are reproduced at the end of this chapter (pp. 5-7).

There is a close relationship between the Basic Academic Competencies and the two sets of goals for citizenship education. They all suggest active student involvement in learning and relating ideas, in communicating with others, and in making reasoned decisions. This should come as no surprise, for effective citizens are unlikely to be uninformed, unable to express themselves, or incapable of thinking rationally. The school that is ineffective in teaching basic skills simply cannot be effective in helping students gain the knowledge and skills needed for effective citizenship.

To return to the question raised earlier: Do social studies teachers have some responsibility to improve the basic skills competence of their students? Some may take the position that there are sharp lines between subject areas, that social studies content should be taught in social studies lessons and that basic skills should be taught in language arts and mathematics lessons. Taking such a position, they may decide it is not their responsibility to teach basic skills while teaching social studies.

There are two problems with such a position:

First, it is rare for teachers of language arts and mathematics to accept significant responsibility for helping students apply basic skills to social studies materials. Language arts teachers, for example, are more likely to teach reading skills using fiction than with social studies textbooks, newspapers, and news magazines. Mathematics teachers most often draw their problems from mathematics textbooks, not from

social studies textbooks, atlases, and almanacs. If students are to become competent in using basic skills with social studies materials, teachers of social studies must assume the responsibility to teach them.

Second, to the extent that social studies teachers are committed to students learning effectively in social studies, as well as becoming rational, independent thinkers, they need to recognize that their success in realizing such aims is dependent upon students' basic skills. It is obvious that students need to be effective in gathering information from a variety of print and visual sources in order to learn social studies content. In addition, one effective way to refine and clarify what they learn is for students to think about and communicate ideas to others, orally and in writing. By paying attention to students' information gathering, processing, and communication skills (in the context of social studies lessons, using social studies materials), teachers of social studies are, in fact, helping to assure successful learning of their social studies objectives.

The authors of this guide are strong advocates of social studies education and take the position that to realize the goals and objectives of social studies instruction every social studies teacher should have a repertoire of strategies to help students learn, apply, and practice basic skills in social studies. After all, those skills are really enabling skills; that is, they are skills that enable students to learn and use insights, in this case, in the area of social studies.

## Using This Book

This book is designed to give teachers of social studies a variety of strategies for teaching social studies content and basic skills objectives in ways that both interest and challenge students. Thirty-one separate strategies and additional variations on those strategies are presented.

An experienced teacher who reviewed a draft of this book commented, "There are many good ideas in this book. I know. I've used some of them for years." Such a comment should caution readers, especially when they are experienced teachers, not to expect ideas new to them on every page. They will find some strategies they have used, some new variations on those strategies, and a few totally new strategies. Consequently, in reading the book, we urge readers to skim the book first and then identify those strategies in Chapter II that they wish to read in more detail. Many readers will also want to examine the resources listed at the end of this book for additional ideas they might use in their teaching.

# Table I
# The College Board "Basic Academic Competencies" and Strategies That May Be Used to Teach and Practice Them

| The College Board Basic Academic Competencies* | Numbers of Strategies as found in Chapter II |
|---|---|
| **Reading Competencies** | |
| 1.1. Identify and comprehend the main and subordinate ideas in written work and summarize the ideas in one's own words. | 2, 3, 9, 10, 18, 21, 23, 24, 29, 30, 31 |

*The College Board, *Preparation for College in the 1980s: The Basic Academic Competencies and the Basic Academic Curriculum* (New York, 1981), pp. 10-15. Competencies are reworded slightly. Used by permission.

| | Reading Competencies | |
|---|---|---|
| 1.2. | Recognize different purposes and methods of writing, identify a writer's point of view, and interpret a writer's meaning inferentially as well as literally. | 11, 12, 15 |
| 1.3. | Separate one's personal opinions and assumptions from a writer's. | 12, 15, 22 |
| 1.4. | Vary one's speed and method . . . according to the type of material and one's purpose. | 2, 6, 10, 16, 22 |
| 1.5. | Use features of books and other materials, such as table of contents, preface, introduction, titles and subtitles, index, glossary, appendix, bibliography. | 1, 3, 28 |
| 1.6. | Define unfamiliar words by decoding, using contextual clues, or by using a dictionary. | 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 |

| | Writing Competencies | |
|---|---|---|
| 2.1. | Organize, select, and relate ideas; outline and develop them in coherent paragraphs. | 10, 16, 20, 25, 26, 29, 30 |
| 2.2. | Write Standard English sentences [which are correctly constructed using standard spelling, punctuation and capitalization]. | 15, 16, 18, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 30 |
| 2.3. | Improve one's own writing by restructuring, correcting errors, and rewriting. | 16, 26 |
| 2.4. | Gather information from primary and secondary sources; write a report using this research; quote, paraphrase, and summarize accurately; cite sources properly. | 16, 26 |

| | Speaking and Listening Competencies | |
|---|---|---|
| 3.1. | Engage critically and constructively in the exchange of ideas . . . . | 4, 7, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 27, 29 |
| 3.2. | Answer and ask questions coherently and concisely; follow spoken directions. | 3, 7, 11, 15, 22, 23, 27, 28, 30, 31 |
| 3.3. | Identify and comprehend main and subordinate ideas in lectures and discussions; report accurately what others have said. | 9, 13, 29 |

| Speaking and Listening Competencies | | |
|---|---|---|
| 3.4. | Conceive and develop ideas about a topic for the purpose of speaking to a group; choose and organize related ideas; present them clearly in Standard English; evaluate similar presentations of others. | 15, 25, 29 |

| Mathematical Competencies | | |
|---|---|---|
| 4.1. | Perform, with reasonable accuracy, the computations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division using natural numbers, fractions, decimals, and integers. | 10, 29* |
| 4.2. | Make and use measurements . . . . | 10, 29* |
| 4.3. | Make estimates and approximations and judge reasonableness of a result. | 29* |
| 4.4. | Formulate and solve a problem in mathematical terms. | 10, 29* |
| 4.5. | Select and use appropriate approaches and tools in solving problems . . . . | 29* |
| 4.6. | Use elementary concepts of probability and statistics. | 10, 14, 24 |

| Reasoning Competencies | | |
|---|---|---|
| 5.1. | Identify and formulate problems; propose and evaluate ways to solve them. | 3, 16, 20, 29 |
| 5.2. | Recognize and use inductive and deductive reasoning; recognize fallacies in reasoning. | 14, 18, 29 |
| 5.3. | Draw reasonable conclusions from information found in various sources, whether written, spoken, tabular, or graphic; defend one's conclusions rationally. | 11, 12, 13, 18, 19, 24, 25, 27, 29, 30 |
| 5.4. | Comprehend, develop, and use concepts and generalizations. | 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 17, 20, 24, 29 |
| 5.5. | Distinguish between fact and opinion. | 12, 13, 29, 30 |

*These skills may or may not be developed depending upon how the strategy is carried out.

| Studying Competencies | | |
|---|---|---|
| 6.1. | Set goals and priorities consistent with stated course objectives and one's own progress, establish surroundings and habits conducive to learning independently or with others, and follow a schedule that accounts for both short- and long-term projects. | 6, 16, 26 |
| 6.2. | Locate and use resources external to the classroom (for example, libraries, computers, interviews, and direct observation); incorporate knowledge from such sources into the learning process. | 12, 13, 14 |
| 6.3. | Develop general and specialized vocabularies; use them for reading, writing, speaking, listening, computing, and studying. | 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 13, 26, 29 |
| 6.4. | Understand and follow instructions for academic work in order to recall, comprehend, analyze, summarize, and report the main ideas from reading, lectures, and other academic experiences; synthesize knowledge and apply it to new situations. | 2, 6, 26, 27, 30 |
| 6.5. | Prepare for various types of examinations . . . . | 26 |
| 6.6. | Accept constructive criticism and learn from it. | 26 |

# Goals for Students in Citizenship Education

(From *A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators*. Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980, pp. 11-12.)

- Understand and respect themselves.
- Understand and respect others . . . .
- Communicate and work well with others.
- Understand how individuals, groups, organizations, and social systems function and relate to each other.
- Inform themselves about current social issues and emerging trends.
- Solve problems; discuss, make, and carry out decisions rationally and responsibly.
- Relate present to past and future, placing current problems in broader perspectives.
- Understand our heritage, appreciating how much the world of today is a result of the actions of all sorts of men and women of earlier generations, appreciating how much the world of tomorrow will be affected by our actions today.

# Seven Goals for Citizenship Education

(From *Effective Citizenship Education: A Basic Goal of Education in the United States*. Council of Chief State School Officers, 1976.)

1. The effective citizen should demonstrate concern for the dignity and well-being of self, family, and others, which includes:
   - — Treating others with respect and offering help when needed;
   - — Supporting equal opportunity for all;
   - — Considering the consequences of one's behavior on the dignity and well-being of others.
2. The effective citizen should support the concept of governance by law and oppose unjust applications, which includes:
   - — Understanding the need for law;
   - — Understanding the processes by which laws are made and changed;
   - — Supporting law enforcement by appropriate action;
   - — Working toward the revision or repeal of unjust laws.
3. The effective citizen should support rights and freedoms important for human development, which includes:
   - — Recognizing and fulfilling ethical and moral commitments;
   - — Recognizing and understanding basic constitutional principles and rights;
   - — Applying constitutional principles and rights in making and judging political decisions;
   - — Acting to uphold the rights of all people.
4. The effective citizen should understand the structure, functions, and actual processes of governments, which includes:
   - — Understanding basic purposes of government;
   - — Understanding the need for a variety of political opinions in democratic governments;
   - — Understanding the roles played by interest groups in democratic political processes;
   - — Understanding that democracy is dependent upon citizen involvement;
   - — Accepting and fulfilling civic responsibilities related to the effective functioning of government.
5. The effective citizen should understand that civic action is essential and that he or she should participate actively in civic improvement, which includes:
   - — Recognizing that each person's civic participation is important;
   - — Understanding the many different ways by which one can personally and practically participate in activities which lead to civic improvement;
   - — Participating in planning, implementing, and evaluating activities for civic improvements;
   - — Assisting others in developing civic skills, in developing their personal set of values, and in achieving their potential.
6. The effective citizen should have an understanding of and concern for world affairs; as well as national, state, and local civic issues, which includes:
   - — Recognizing that social, economic, and political conflicts exist;
   - — Recognizing and understanding how world, national, state, and local events and trends are often interrelated;
   - — Understanding how civic policies affect people's lives;
   - — Being aware of major civic problems, considering alternative solutions, and seeking ethical ways to cope with and/or resolve the problems;
   - — Making serious efforts to keep informed about civic issues of importance.

7. The effective citizen should use rational processes when making civic decisions, which include:
   — Identifying the issues involved, and recognizing which values (liberty, freedom, equality, justice, peace, etc.), if any, are in conflict;
   — Seeking relevant information and alternative viewpoints on civicly important questions;
   — Evaluating civic communications and actions carefully as a basis for forming and changing one's own views;
   — Acting responsibly, and being able to justify opinions and actions.

# Chapter II
# Social Studies Strategies to Promote Basic Academic Skills

There are numerous ways social studies teachers can use basic academic competencies to improve the learning and use of social studies concepts and content. The strategies listed in this chapter promote both the acquisition of social studies content and basic skills objectives in ways to interest and challenge students. Each strategy included lists suggested grade levels,* the purpose of the strategy, a discussion of the strategy, variations of the strategy, and references.

Below is a listing of strategies that are discussed in this chapter:


| Strategy | Grade Levels |
|---|---|
| 1. Orienting Students to Text Materials | 3-12 |
| 2. Directed Reading | 3-12 |
| 3. SQ3R | 4-12 |
| 4. Association | K-12 |
| 5. Cloze Procedure | 2-12 |
| 6. Providing Purpose for Assignments | 1-12 |
| 7. Classification and Associations to Develop Concepts and Vocabulary | K-12 |
| 8. Making New Terms Meaningful | 3-12 |
| 9. The Advance Organizer | 4-12 |
| 10. Translation for Comprehension and Review | 3-12 |
| 11. Questions that Promote Interpretations | K-12 |
| 12. Judging Sources of Information | 5-12 |
| 13. Analysis of What People Say and Write | 8-12 |
| 14. Analyzing Fallacies in Reasoning | 9-12 |
| 15. Analysis of Attempts at Persuasion | 2-12 |
| 16. A Systematic Approach to Writing Reports | 7-12 |
| 17. Analogies | K-12 |
| 18. Evidence for Judgments | K-12 |
| 19. Anticipation, Prediction | K-12 |
| 20. Applying a Decision-Making Model | 4-12 |
| 21. From Fragments to Sentences | 3-12 |


*Grade levels suggested for specific strategies are simply guidelines. Creative teachers can adapt ideas in many other ways than are presented in this publication and can apply ideas at a variety of levels. In some cases, strategies discussed in this book may need adaptations to make them adjust even to the grade levels listed.

22. Attentive Listening ..... 1-12
23. Question/Requestion ..... K-12
24. The Sponge Activity ..... 2-12
25. Sequencing and Time Lines ..... K-12
26. Tips for Writing in Social Studies ..... 3-12
27. What Else Do I Need to Ask? ..... 4-12
28. True/False/Prove ..... 3-12
29. Take, Clarify, Defend a Stand—Case Study Approach ..... 8-12
30. Who, What, When, Where, How, Why, What's the Difference? ..... K-12
31. Pronouns and Antecedents ..... K-6


These strategies serve a variety of purposes and functions:

| Functions of Strategies | Strategy Number |
|---|---|
| Orienting students to books | 1, 3 |
| Previewing and structuring assignments | 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 24, 27, 28 |
| Developing concepts; learning vocabulary | 4, 7, 8, 13, 17, 31 |
| Questioning | 3, 12, 15, 23 |
| Comprehending what one reads | 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 18, 19, 21, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30, 31 |
| Reviewing | 3, 10, 17, 21, 23, 24, 25, 28 |
| Interpreting information | 2, 11, 18, 19, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30 |
| Analyzing what one reads or hears; reasoning | 7, 12, 13, 14, 15 |
| Synthesizing ideas from many sources | 16, 29 |
| Solving problems; making decisions | 20, 29 |
| Listening | 1, 15, 18, 22, 23, 28, 29, 31 |
| Speaking | 29 |
| Writing | 4, 15, 16, 18, 21, 22, 26 29, 30 |
| Sequencing | 10, 11, 12, 14, 16, 19, 25, 30 |
| Comparing; contrasting; categorizing | 2, 7, 11, 13, 14, 17 |
| Skimming | 1, 3, 28 |
| Predicting | 3, 19, 20, 29 |

# STRATEGY 1
# Orienting Students to Text Materials

**Grade Levels:** 3-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

To orient students to features of the textbook and help them use those features to enhance learning.

### Discussion of the Strategy

How many students know the title of their textbook? How many students can name the authors of the textbooks they are using? How many understand and can use to advantage the format of their books (chapter titles, headings, and subheadings)? How many know the copyright date of the book? How many can describe how the entire book is organized (chronologically, by topics, comparatively)? In many cases, if they know the answers to those questions, they have learned them on their own. A relatively small number of teachers explicitly teach students such matters, even though such knowledge would help students place what they are studying in a broader perspective and be more efficient in their study of the book.

There are many ways to investigate the structure and features of a textbook. One way, described in *A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators* (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980), is to ask students specific questions about the title page, the table of contents, the preface, the index, the chapters (with emphasis on their organization), the audiovisual aids, and the glossary.

### Variations of the Strategy

*Beginning of the Year Orientation.* At the beginning of the school year the following questions could be asked: "What can we learn about this book from the title page [or the table of contents, preface, title and headings in any chapter, or the back part of the book, where the glossary and index may be found]?" Draw ideas from students and then ask, "How could this information help us use this book efficiently?" and "What important things seem to be omitted from this book?"

*Daily Use.* Any time an assignment in the book is given, the teacher should make certain students know what features of the textbook to use with the assignment and, if the need exists, help students in the actual use of these features. (Features may include photographs, charts, headings and subheadings, introductions and conclusions, italicized terms and glossaries, etc.)

*Quizzes and Games.* Open-book quizzes and games could be set up where students must use various features of a book to answer questions. Here are some sample questions:

1. Who wrote your textbook?
2. Where is the table of contents?
3. Where is the index?
4. Where is the glossary?
5. What is the book's copyright date?
6. Looking at the table of contents only, what would you find on page 23?
7. In which part of your book would you most rapidly find a discussion of the Treaty of Versailles?
8. There is a 15 second time limit for this question. On what pages will you find information about "torts"?
9. Look at the table of contents. What is the topic of Unit I?
10. Look at the list of units and chapters in the table of contents. How is the book organized? (i.e., is it organized in chronological sequence, by separate topics, or in a comparison-contrast approach?)
11. On what pages will you find maps of the Civil War? (Twenty second time limit.)
12. On what page of your book is "constitution" defined?

Questions like these are easy to make up. In fact, some teachers may want to keep students alert by starting class each day with a question like one of the above. Other teachers may organize a contest as follows: pass out index cards and have each student write a question on a card. Then divide into teams and ask questions of the opposing team. Teachers could promote good listening habits by making clear to students that such questions, when given orally, will be stated *only once.*

### Source of the Idea

*A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators.* Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980, pp. 100-101.

McReynolds, Grace M. "Introducing a Textbook." *Missouri Schools,* February 1979, p. 5.

> "The expert student considers the nature of the material to be learned. Texts, for instance, have predictable, logical structures or organizational patterns. Students who identify and use the inherent text structure are better able to learn from it (Meyer, 1975, 1979; Shimmerlik, 1978; Goetz and Armbruster, 1980; Walker and Meyer, 1980). Expert learners know how to use headings, introductions and summaries, topic sentences, and key relationship signals (because, on the other hand, first, second . . .) to determine the structure."
>
> Bonnie B. Armbruster and Thomas H. Anderson, "Research Synthesis on Study Skills," *Educational Leadership,* November 1981, p. 154.

# STRATEGY 2
# Directed Reading

**Grade Levels:** 3-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

To promote student comprehension of reading assignments.

### Discussion of the Strategy

This is a five-phase approach to reading:

1. *Exploring and Strengthening Student's Background.* Explore what students already know about the topic of the reading assignment, and strengthen their background when their information about the topic is insufficient. Many methods may be used in this phase of the strategy, two examples of which may be found in Strategies 4 and 9.
2. *Structuring the Assignment.* Preview the assignment, clarify its purpose, and indicate, if appropriate, how students are to proceed with the reading. For more specific suggestions, see Strategy 6.
3. *Student Reading.* Direct students to read the assignment in class or at home, whichever is more feasible, depending upon time constraints and student maturity. In some cases, oral reading may be productive.
4. *Follow-up Activities.* Have students summarize what they have learned from the reading. Many approaches may be taken in this phase of the activity. Whatever approaches are used—quizzes, nondirective or inquiry-centered discussions, or responses using art media—they need to relate directly to the purposes for reading specified in Phase 2 above.
5. *Extending the Activity.* Here again, while many approaches may be taken, it is important to use an approach consistent with the objectives of the unit. The next chapter might be read, students

might read corresponding sections of different textbooks and make comparisons, students might evaluate ideas from the reading using library research and interviews, students might create works of art or skits related to the assignment, and so on.

### Source of the Idea

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Middle and Secondary School Teachers.* 2d ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1978, pp. 94-100.

McReynolds, Grace. "The Directed Reading-Thinking Activity." *Missouri Schools,* February 1979, p. 6.

# STRATEGY 3
# SQ3R

**Grade Levels:** 4-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To help students use features of books (titles, subtitles, etc.) to assist them in comprehending what they read.
2. To help students understand how a chapter is organized into main and subordinate ideas.
3. To help students learn specific content, main ideas and supporting details, in a chapter.

### Discussion of the Strategy

This is a five-step sequence that may be introduced early in the school year to help students read and remember ideas from articles, textbooks, and other non-fiction reading. Later in the year, students could be encouraged to use it on their own. The steps are as follows:

**Survey** — Students skim an assignment to find what it will cover. Students should pay special attention to the title, headings, subheadings, and illustrations.

**Question** — Students turn titles, headings, and subheadings into questions which they will answer in the next step of the process.

**Read** — Students read material, seeking answers to the questions they have raised.

**Recite** — Students write answers to questions on paper or discuss their answers with classmates.

**Review** — Students, at a later time, review what they have read and their written answers.

### Variations of the Strategy

*The Class Discussion Version.* Students could be taught this process as follows:

1. Survey in class as a group. The teacher could initiate the discussion with a structuring statement like this: "Let's see how clever you really are. How much can you figure out about what you will learn from this chapter without reading it? You may only look at the title, the headings, the subheadings, and the pictures." Fill the chalkboard with the students' ideas.
2. Develop questions in class as a group, or form small groups to generate questions. This may be initiated with a structuring statement, such as: "Now, let's see how good we are at converting statements into questions. The title of this chapter is 'Credit.' Let's see how many questions we can make up that relate to that title." Students should jot down the questions they come up with for that title, as well as for the headings and subheadings.
3. Have students read the assignment on their own, seeking answers to their questions.

4. Have students discuss how they would answer their questions with classmates in groups of five or fewer students.
5. Give students time, later on, to review the assignment by looking over their questions and the reading itself. Ask students to summarize the chapter in as few words as possible.

*The Study Guide Version.* The steps for SQ3R could be placed on pages for students to use in guiding their reading. The study guide may include these ideas:

1. Look at the chapter title, headings, subheadings, and illustrations, and write down what you think you will learn from this chapter. Limit your answer to three sentences.
2. Write at least three questions you can think of for the title, each heading, and each subheading.
3. Read, seeking answers to your questions.
4. Write answers to your questions in your notebooks. On the following day, have students compare what they have written and discuss in class.
5. One week later, before the chapter test, direct students to review the chapter and their notes.

### Source of the Idea

*A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators.* Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980, p. 99.

Beyer, Barry K. *Back-To-Basics in Social Studies.* Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1977, p. 26.

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Middle and Secondary School Teachers.* 2d ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1978, p. 104-8.

Lunstrum, John P. and Bob L. Taylor. *Teaching Reading in the Social Studies.* Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1978, p. 50.

McFarland, Mary. "SQ3R." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

## STRATEGY 4
## Association

**Grade Levels:** K-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To help the teacher collect diagnostic data useful in deciding what students know about a topic they are about to study.
2. To familiarize students with a topic or concept they are about to study.
3. To help students review what they have learned about a topic.

### Discussion of the Strategy

Write the topic students are about to study on the chalkboard (e.g., "World War I," "The Great Depression," "social class," "Confucius," "Japan," "police officer," "city," "Constitution," "railroads," or whatever the topic might be).

Have students relate any words, dates, places, or anything that they associate with the topic. Place the students' ideas on the chalkboard.

Express appreciation to students for sharing their ideas. Indicate that these ideas provide background for what will soon be read, or indicate whether there is a mix of accurate insights and misconceptions, whichever is really the case. Some or all misconceptions may be corrected on the spot, or students could be told they should look for and correct misconceptions as they proceed with their studies in the forthcoming unit.

### Variations of the Strategy

*Overhead Transparency Variation.* Use an overhead projector and clear transparency. An advantage of using the transparency is that it can be saved. The transparency that is saved could be used as data representing student knowledge at the beginning of the unit. As the unit progresses, the transparency could be reexamined so that students could correct their misconceptions.

*Art Variation.* Rather than list a topic on the chalkboard or on a transparency, show a print or slide of a photograph or work of art that represents in a significant way the topic students are about to study. Ask students to indicate in free association what the stimulus material used means to them.

*Review Strategy.* This strategy could be used at the end of a unit. Students should list all words and dates they associate with the topic they studied. Each student should then select three to five items from the list of words and dates and make a sentence that expresses an important generalization about what they studied. Their sentences could then be displayed for everyone to see and discuss.

### Source of the Idea

McFarland, Mary. "Association." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

## STRATEGY 5
# Cloze Procedure*

**Grade Levels:** 2-12 and above. This approach may also be used with younger children (see Variation 2 below).

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To improve student skill in using context clues to aid in comprehension.
2. To help students learn the content of material to be read in the activity.
3. To help students review familiar content.
4. To help the teacher collect data for making diagnostic decisions about students who will need help in learning the material to be studied. (For this purpose the strategy may be used best at the beginning of a unit.)

**NOTE:** This strategy proves that reading comprehension is dependent on both general reading skills and having a knowledge base that relates well to the reading. For example, a good adult reader who is ignorant about economics would be unable to succeed with Example 3 below. A strength of this strategy is that in discussing words that would fit in the blanks, students could show what they understand (or do not understand) about the specific content involved. This strategy could be used to teach the content in a way that students will find interesting, provided that it is not overused.

### Discussion of the Strategy

Take a passage students are to read, delete every fifth, seventh, or tenth word beginning with the second sentence. Have students try to figure out what words were deleted, and discuss in class what

* The cloze procedure, developed by Wilson Taylor in 1953 and adapted by others is based upon the psychological phenomenon of *closure*, the tendency of individuals to fill in blank spaces within larger patterns. Cloze may not only be used as a teaching strategy, as shown here, but also as a method of determining whether a textbook is at an appropriate level of difficulty for students. See *A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators* (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980), pp. 160-62.

students feel should be the proper words. In this strategy the actual words and their synonyms would be appropriate responses.

Example 1: Lynn Cherryholmes, et al., *Learning About People* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1979), p. 129. (A grade 2 textbook.)

**What Will Happen?**

Here is another story about decisions.

Lisa has a dog. _____ dog is named Sandy. _____ whole family likes Sandy. _____ Sandy has bad habits. _____ does not stay home. _____ likes to dig up _____ . The neighbors are not _____ .

Example 2: Robert A. Goodale and Elaine Goldberg, *Experiencing Psychology* (Chicago: SRA, 1978), p. 348. (A senior high textbook.)

A series of famous experiments by HARRY HARLOW have investigated attachment behavior in infant monkeys. The monkeys were raised _____ two types of substitute _____ : one made entirely _____ wire and the other _____ of wire with a _____ cloth (bath towel) cover _____ of the monkeys were _____ from the wire mother _____ half from the cloth _____ . According to behaviorist learning _____ , each monkey should have _____ an attachment to the _____ who fed it. But _____ monkeys stayed with the _____ mothers only long enough _____ eat.

Example 3: *Time*, January 19, 1981, p. 67.

**Inflation: The Enemy Is Us**

If everyone agrees that inflation is a grave problem, why is it so difficult to stop? One reason is that _____ people like to rail _____ rising prices, many also _____ some handsome benefits from _____ . They have in effect _____ a constituency for inflation. _____ M.I.T.'s Lester C. Thurow, a _____ of the TIME Board _____ Economists: "Suppose you told _____ businessmen that you could _____ a magic wand and _____ the inflation rate to _____ . They would think about _____ for a minute and _____ no. They have made _____ fixed commitments in loans _____ inventories that they would _____ want to live with."

_____ with heavy debts benefits _____ inflation, which is why _____ no longer heed the _____ in Hamlet: "Neither a _____ nor a lender be." _____ take out loans in _____ expectation that they will _____ able to pay them _____ later with cheaper dollars. _____ in recent years they _____ been right. Borrowers can _____ repay their debts with _____ worth just 63¢ in 1975 terms.

### Variations of the Strategy

*Providing Additional Clues.*

1. By changing from fill-in-the-blank to multiple choice format. (This is called the Maze Procedure.)
2. By providing the first two letters of each missing word.
3. By providing the number of letters of each missing word using blanks (e.g., — — — —).

*Using an Oral Version of the Cloze.* The teacher reads stories or uses audiotapes, newscasts, commercials, or other things from radio or television, stopping at various points to ask students to predict words they think will come next. Students then compare their predictions with what actually follows.

### Source of the Idea

Lunstrum, John P. and Bob L. Taylor. *Teaching Reading in the Social Studies*. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1978.

McFarland, Mary. "Cloze and Maze." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981. (Examples 2 and 3 used in this strategy did not come from materials used as textbooks in the Parkway School District.)

# STRATEGY 6
# Providing Purpose for Assignments

**Grade Levels:** 1-12

## Purpose of the Strategy

To enhance student comprehension of what they read.

## Discussion of the Strategy

Often students are simply told to read certain pages in a book for tomorrow's lesson. Such an assignment is likely to be carried out without much interest, with passivity, and with less than desirable comprehension.

In this strategy the assignment is briefly previewed, and the purpose for the assignment is made clear. Many purposes are possible. The purpose selected should be related to the unit objectives and made explicit and meaningful to students. Whenever possible, the importance of the assignment for students, as individuals and citizens, ought to be made clear.

Examples of assignments that specify purposes are listed below. Both examples relate what students are to read to their daily lives and experiences.

Example 1: Rather than say simply, "Read pages 5-8," the assignment may be given as follows:

> "Read pages 5-8. When you do so, search for what the authors of your book mean when they say 'Civics is part of your life.' Be prepared to tell us tomorrow what 'civics' refers to and how it is part of *your* life."
>
> This example relates to John J. Patrick and Richard C. Remey, *Civics for Americans* (Glenview, Ill.: Scott Foresman and Co., 1980).

Example 2: Rather than simply say, "Read pages 50 and 51," the assignment may be given as follows:

> "Read pages 50 and 51. Look at the heading on page 50. What does it say? [Reply, 'Some behavior is not learned.'] Look at the pictures, read the two pages, and be ready to give us some examples of kinds of behavior that you learned and examples of behavior that you did not learn."
>
> This assignment relates to Lynn Cherryholmes, et al., *Learning About People* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1979). (A grade 2 textbook.)

## Variations of the Strategy

*Involve Students in Defining What the Purpose Should be for the Reading.* Have students scan the pages they will read and specify what they think they should learn or would like to find out from the reading. Have them try to relate the reading to their own education as an individual and citizen.

*Involve Students in Writing about What they Read.* In Examples 1 and 2 above, students were asked to be prepared to respond to certain questions the teacher posed. In this alternative, they would be asked to write brief responses to such questions.

### Source of the Idea

*A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators.* Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980, pp. 98-99.

Beyer, Barry K. *Back-to-Basics in Social Studies.* Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1979, pp. 24-25.

> "Expert students structure their study activities according to what they know about the criterion task. The more specific the student's knowledge about the task, the greater the effectiveness of studying. For example, when studying for a test, the student needs to know the number and types of questions, the duration of the test, the extent to which external aids can be used, and the evaluative criteria to be applied."
>
> Bonnie B. Armbruster and Thomas H. Anderson, "Research Synthesis on Study Skills." *Educational Leadership,* November 1981, p. 154.

# STRATEGY 7
# Classification and Association to Develop Concepts and Vocabulary

**Grade Levels:** K-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

To help students understand the vocabulary used in social studies.

### Discussion of the Strategy

Experienced teachers have found students often do not understand social studies terms. Such understanding is a part of and a prerequisite for all learning in social studies. Many strategies may be used to help students gain an understanding of the concepts and vocabulary used in social studies. Some of these are listed below under "Variations of the Strategy."

*Definition of Terms. Concept* refers to a basic idea or a category used to sort out experience, whereas *vocabulary* refers to the label of a concept and its definition. According to Bruner, a concept has these elements: (1) a name or label, (2) examples (positive and negative), (3) attributes (essential and nonessential, or "noisy"), (4) attribute values (the range of possibilities for each attribute which falls within the category), and (5) a rule (the definition of the term). Vocabulary development is concerned with elements 1 and 5; concept development is concerned with all five elements (see Figure 1, p. 20).

*Importance of Concept and Vocabulary Development.* A student who reads a passage from a book, but who does not understand the concepts and vocabulary involved will be unable to comprehend what he reads. Social studies vocabulary and concepts need to be taught when students do not understand them, and social studies teachers are best qualified to do so.

### Variations of the Strategy

*Grouping Terms.* Give students a list of words—for example, Amazon, St. Louis, British Isles, Andes, Europe, St. Lawrence, Buenos Aires, Australia, Rhine, Chile, Yangtze, Himalayas, New Delhi, Danube, Alps, Berlin, Cuba, Mississippi, and so on—and have them group them in columns as shown.

| Group 1 | Group 2 | Group 3 | Group 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | |

The words may be grouped in many ways. The students should explain the idea (concept) that lies behind each group and explain what they see as the characteristics of the concept. For example, Amazon, St. Lawrence, Rhine. Danube, and Mississippi may be grouped in one column as examples of rivers—large streams of water that flow in a definite course in a channel bounded by land. This strategy could be used with all sorts of terms. Appropriate terms to use are those that relate to units students are studying.

*Generating Examples of Terms.* Give students categories and ask them to list as many examples as they can think of for the category. The categories should relate to content being studied. Examples of categories are:

1. Mountain ranges, such as *Rockies* and *Andes.*
2. Names for family members, such as *father* and *sister.*
3. Names of land in relationship to bodies of waters, such as *coastline* and *peninsula.*
4. Names of types of governments, such as *monarchy* and *direct democracy.*

Once students come up with their lists, they should discuss why the terms fit within the categories.

*Contrasting Terms.* Students could contrast two words by completing the cells to the right of each (see below). Answer should be justified.

| | Examples of each | Source(s) of power | Limits on power | Race of leader |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Democratic Leader | | | | |
| Dictator | | | | |

This strategy can help students differentiate between essential (defining) and nonessential (noisy) attributes. For example, "race of leader" is noisy, since a democratic or dictorial leader may be of any race; whereas, "limits on power" is an essential attribute to differentiate between a democratic and dictorial leader.

*Photosort.* Collect photographs, mount them on cards, and have students sort them using (a) concepts you as the teacher designate (such as joy, anger, boredom, China, Japan, Soviet Union, Mexico; urban, rural, suburban) or (b) groupings students find that make sense to them, based on their common attributes. Whichever procedure is used, it is important to have students explain why they grouped their photographs as they did.

### Source of the Idea

Powell, C. Glennon. "Vocabulary Development in the Social Studies." *Social Education,* January 1978, pp. 10-12.

See also: *A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators.* Jefferson City, Mo.: Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980, pp. 95-96.

**Figure 1. Analysis of the Concept "American Citizen" in Relation to Elements of a Concept**

| Elements of a Concept | How the Specific Concept Relates to the Concept Element | |
|---|---|---|
| Label | American citizen | |
| Examples | Positive: | Franklin D. Roosevelt, Warren Burger, Bob Gibson, etc. |
| | Negative: | Helmut Schmidt, Pierre Trudeau, Margaret Thatcher, Lassie, elm tree, etc. |
| Attributes | Essential: | (1) person<br>(2) born from parents who are U.S. citizens *or*<br>(3) born in the United States *or*<br>(4) naturalized under U.S. law |
| | Nonessential: | (1) sex (a citizen may be male or female)<br>(2) age (a citizen may be of any age)<br>(3) race (a citizen may be of any race)<br>(4) intelligence (a citizen may have any IQ) |
| Attribute Values | Considering Essential Attribute 3, "born in the United States," is a baby born from non-U.S. citizen parents a citizen if born in Ohio? . . . on a U.S. warship? . . . on a U.S. ocean liner? . . . in Puerto Rico? . . . in a U.S. embassy? . . . in a Lufthansa airliner over New York State? | |
| Rule (Definition) | "A citizen is a person born from U.S. parents, born in the United States, or naturalized (made a citizen) according to United States law." | |

# STRATEGY 8
# Making New Terms Meaningful

**Grade Levels:** 3-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

To help students understand important vocabulary terms used in social studies.

### Discussion of the Strategy

Before students begin a reading assignment, identify one or two of the key words used in the reading and place the word or words on the board for students to see. We will assume in this case the word is "trade." Ask students to tell as many things as they can about the term and quickly jot down their ideas on the board. After many of their ideas are on the board, ask a few students where they got their ideas. At this point do not press for accuracy or precise definitions. After students read the assignment, the students can be directed to answer these questions:

1. Now that I have read this last assignment, I know trade is _____

_____

_____.

2. I also know trade is *not* the same thing as _____,

_____, _____,

and _____.

3. Trade is important because _____

_____.

4. Trade affects me in this way: _____

_____

_____.

Once responses are written, the students' answers could be discussed and compared. In the case of answers to Question 1, ask students for evidence to support their definitions of trade. For example, have them identify where in their reading they found a definition of trade or from which passage they inferred their definition. Finally, students may compare their definitions with definitions in the dictionary. This activity draws upon students' prior experiences, develops the skill of inferring an understanding of words from context, and encourages use of dictionaries.

### Variations of the Strategy

*The Strategy Could Be Used As Is With Other Vocabulary Terms.* Simply substitute another term—"family," "home," "transportation," "norm," "rule," "opportunity cost," "share of stock," "energy," "political power," or whatever—for "trade."

*Students Could Demonstrate New Terms Through Skits or Artwork.* Some concepts are easily demonstrated through skits or cartoons. In such cases, encourage students to demonstrate their understanding using one or more of these approaches.

### Source of the Idea

*A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators.* Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980, pp. 102-3.

## STRATEGY 9
# The Advance Organizer

**Grade Levels:** 4-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

To help students assimilate new ideas from material they will read.

### Discussion of the Strategy

Before assigning students a reading task or before giving a lecture to students, present students with a general idea that solidly connects the learning material with existing ideas students already have. The general idea should be discussed and supported with examples and made meaningful to students before they embark upon reading or listening to the lecture.

Example: Before students read the introductory chapter of Elmer Clawson's book *Our Economy: How It Works* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1980), the teacher could provide an advance

organizer like the following:

> "Economics is the study of how people produce, distribute, and consume goods and services. [The teacher discusses with students the terms 'goods and services,' 'produce,' 'distribute,' and 'consumer,' relating each of these terms to students' experiences.] What are some goods and services that have changed over time and are likely to change in the future? [Discuss some examples briefly.] Another important idea to keep in mind is that what people produce, distribute, and consume and how they do so is determined by decisions people make. [The teacher discusses with students some examples of production, distribution, and consumption decisions that would be meaningful to students, given their past experiences.] These are some ideas Chapter I, 'Understanding Our Economic System,' will explore. Now that you are familiar with these important ideas, you are in a good position to understand the chapter. See how many examples of economic decisions you find mentioned or implied in the chapter."

NOTE: According to David P. Ausubel, the psychologist who has done most to develop the theory of advance organizers, the organizer is important content in itself that needs to be taught. The challenge for the teacher is to determine the main ideas that shall be incorporated in the advance organizer. They would usually come from the academic discipline from which the reading is drawn. The advance organizer then needs to be related to students' ideas and prior experiences to be made meaningful. The organizer provides a set of meaningful, general ideas students may use to relate to more specific ideas in their reading or in the lecture.

### Variation of the Strategy

*The Diagramatic Organizer.* The advance organizer may be presented visually in the form of an outline, flow chart, time line, tree chart, maps, charts, pie graphs, line graphs, and so on. In such cases the visual would be used to help the teacher explain the main idea the students are about to study. Examples of such visuals may be found in Strategy 10.

### Source of the Idea

Ausubel, David P. *The Psychology of Meaningful Verbal Learning.* New York: Grune and Stratton, 1963.
Joyce, Bruce and Marshe Weil. *Models of Teaching.* 2d ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1980, pp. 75-93.

## STRATEGY 10
# Translation for Comprehension and Review

**Grade Levels:** 3-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

To help students understand (comprehend) and recall what they read.

NOTE: When students recall what they read and then repeat the information, we still cannot be certain they comprehend the information. When they place the ideas in another form, we have better evidence that they understand what they have read. Moreover, the act of placing the ideas in another format forces them to think about the ideas and reconstruct them, making understanding and recollection more likely.

## Discussion of the Strategy

The students are to convert what they read from one format into a different one (see variations that follow).

## Variations of the Strategy

*The Outline.* Ideas from any chapter could be converted (translated) to an outline format (see Figure 2, which follows this Strategy).

*The Flow Chart.* In chapters where cause-and-effect relationships are shown, the chapter may be converted to a flow chart format (see Figure 3).

*The Time Line.* Many chapters in history books are easily translated into a time line format (see Figure 4). A more sophisticated version of the time line is what may be called a "milestone time line." In this case, students identify what events are especially important (milestones) and list those events in upper-case letters. This type of time line forces students to distinguish between more and less important events and may serve as the basis for productive discussions when students compare their milestone time lines.

*The Tree Chart.* Genealogical information and many classifications can be shown in a tree chart format (see Figure 5).

*Sketches and Maps.* Some written information lends itself to a sketch or map format. In these cases students would convert expository information, such as a description of how a court room or medieval manor is organized, into a sketch or map format (see Figure 6).

*Graphs.*

1. *Map graphs.* This is a very flexible substitute for an outline. The main idea is stated in the center of the page and each major subdivision extends out as a spoke from the center. Subordinate ideas to the major subdivision are attached to the appropriate subdivision lines (see Figure 7).
2. *Pie Graphs.* Where a chapter describes how various parts of a whole relate to the whole proportionately, a pie graph may be used to show the relationship (see Figure 8).
3. *Bar and line graphs.* Bar and line graphs are useful to record and compare quantities (see Figure 9).

**NOTE:** Students may convert expository writing into the above formats or convert from the above formats into expository writing. Their understanding is enhanced when they explain to others what they have learned.

## Source of the Idea

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Middle and Secondary School Teachers.* 2d ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1978, pp. 212-31.

McFarland, Mary. "Diagramatic." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, A Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

Sanders, Norris. *Classroom Questions.* New York: Harper and Row, 1966.

**Figure 2. The Outline Format**

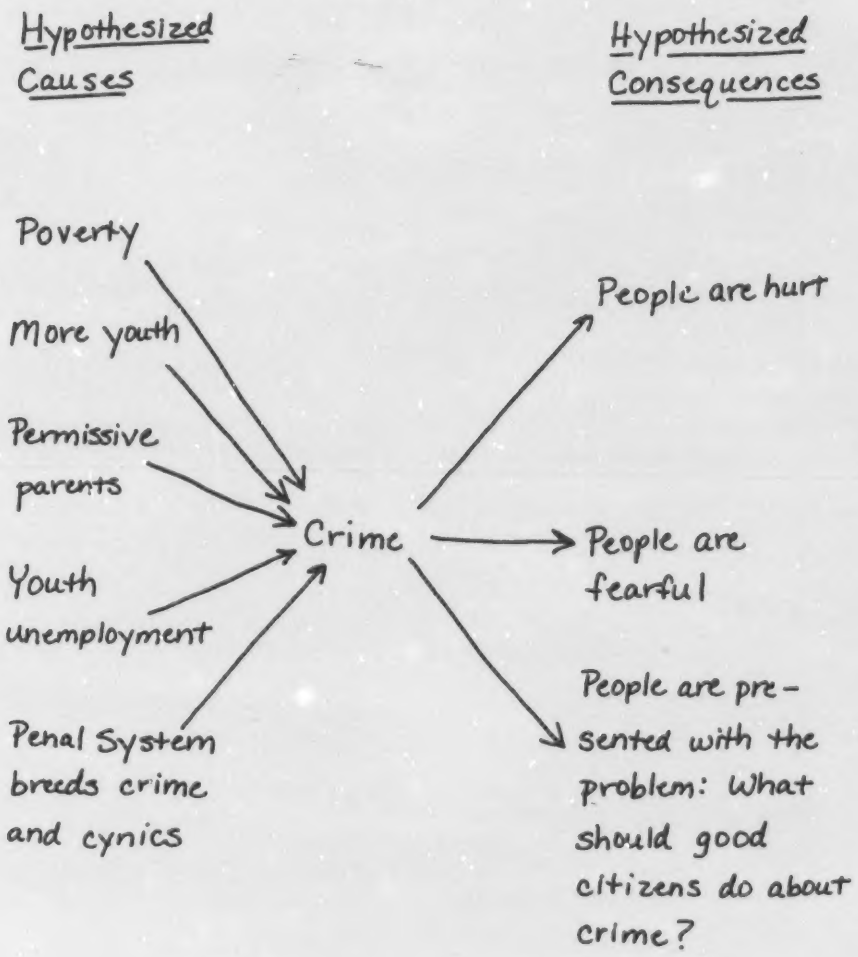
Topic: Canada—Neighbors to the North*

I. Canada and U.S. — good friends and neighbors
   A. Defense
   B. Search for oil
   C. Recreation
   D. Building the St. Lawrence Seaway
II. Early history of Canada
   A. First settlers
      1. Indians and Eskimos (20,000 years ago)
      2. Vikings (around 1000 A.D. — did not stay)
   B. English settlers — John Cabot (late 1490's and early 1500's)
      Went to Newfoundland — fished, did not penetrate continent
   C. French settlers — Jacques Cartier
      1. Commissioned by French king (1534)
      2. Visited, but was not impressed with Newfoundland
      3. Claimed St. Lawrence area for France
      4. On second trip, found Indian villages, not the gold he sought

*This outline is based on a reading from Herbert H. Gross, et al., *Exploring Our World: The Americas* (Chicago: Follett, 1980), pp. 354-63.

**Figure 3. The Flow Chart**

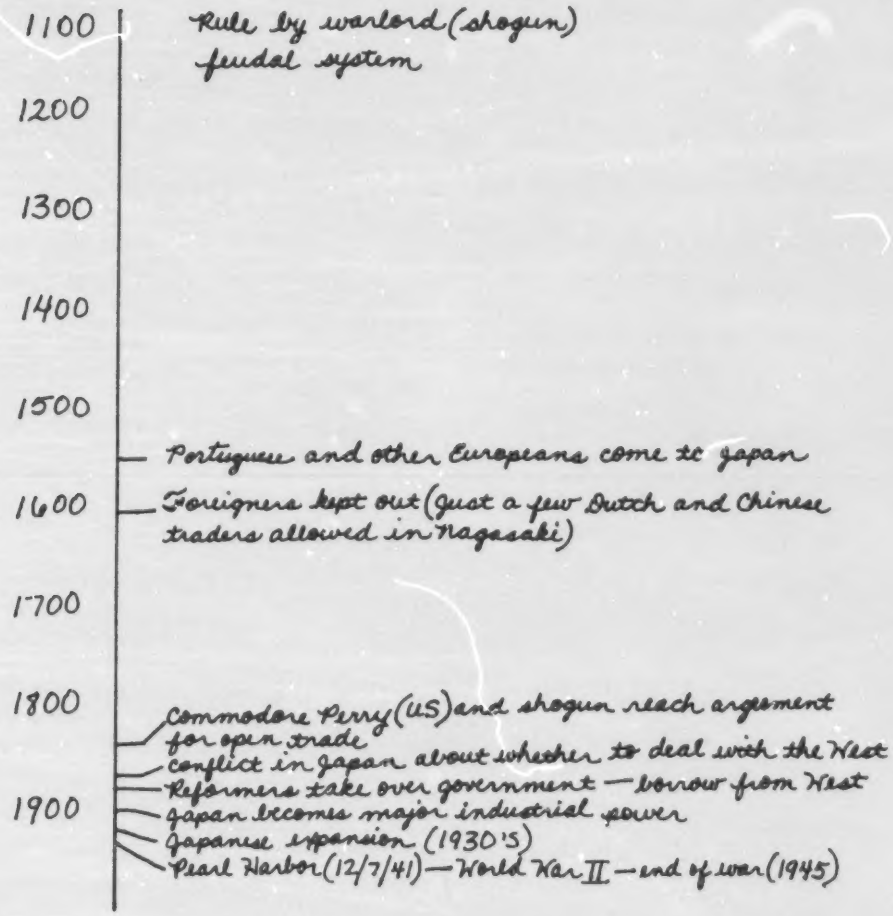
Topic: Crime, Criminals, and Victims*




*This figure is based on material from the Constitutional Rights Foundation and Scholastic publication, *Criminal Justice* (New York: Scholastic, 1978), pp. 35-46.

**Figure 4. The Time Line**

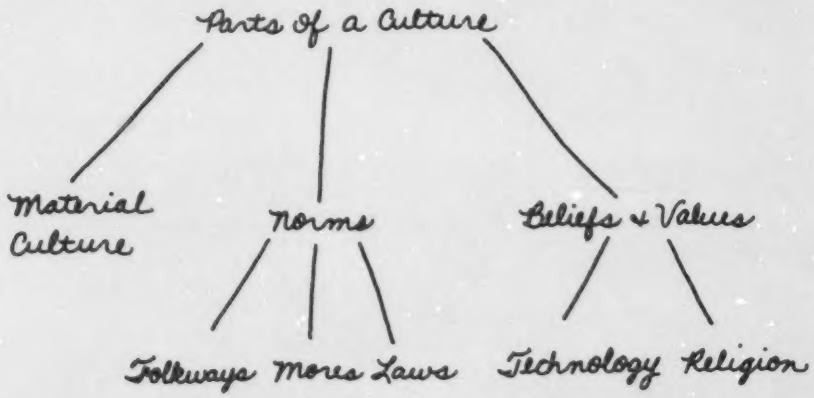
Topic: Japanese History*


1100
Rule by warlord (shogun) feudal system
1200
1300
1400
1500
Portuguese and other Europeans come to Japan
1600
Foreigners kept out (just a few Dutch and Chinese traders allowed in Nagasaki)
1700
1800
Commodore Perry (US) and shogun reach argement for open trade
conflict in Japan about whether to deal with the West
Reformers take over government — borrow from West
1900
Japan becomes major industrial power
Japanese expansion (1930's)
Pearl Harbor (12/7/41) — World War II — end of war (1945)

*The time line is based on content from Ralph Sandlin Yohe, et al., *Exploring Our World: Eastern Hemisphere* (Chicago: Follett, 1980), pp. 353-57.

**Figure 5. The Tree Chart**

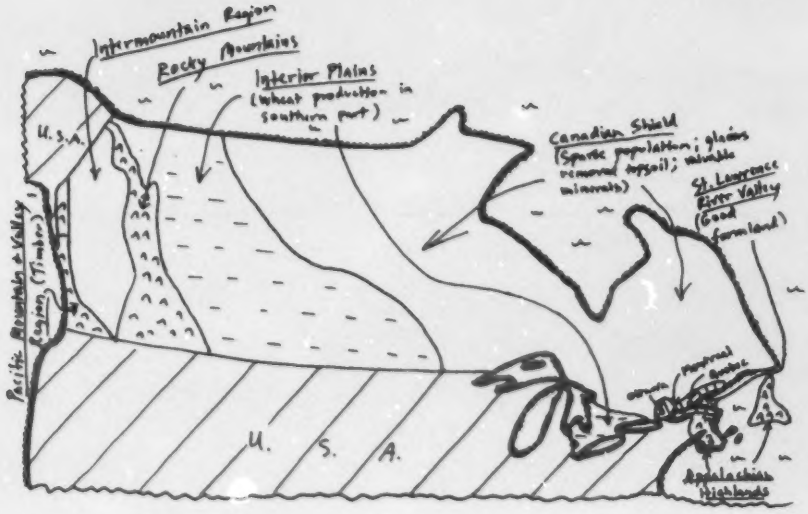
Topic: How does a Culture Work?*




*This chart is based on content from John Jay Bonstingl, *Introduction to the Social Sciences* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980), pp. 218-19.

**Figure 6. Map**

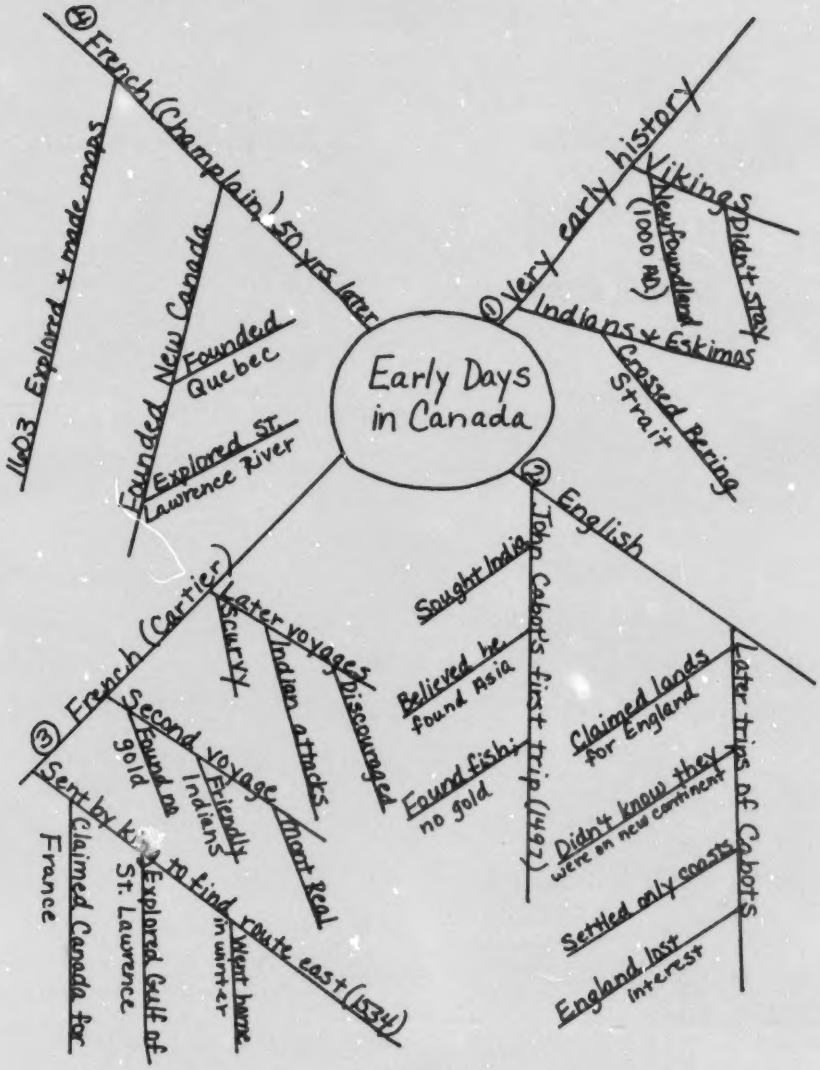
Topic: Regions of Canada*




*This map is based on content from Herbert H. Gross, et al., *Exploring Our World: The Americas* (Chicago: Follett, 1980), pp. 356-60.

**Figure 7. Map Graph**

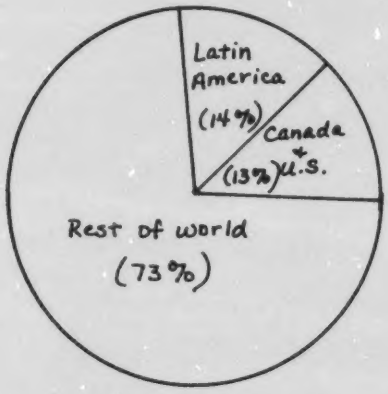
Topic: Early Days in Canada*




*This graph is based on content from Herbert H. Gross, et al., *Exploring Our World: The Americas* (Chicago: Follett, 1980), pp. 361-65.

**Figure 8. Pie Graph**

Topic: Population and World Land Area: America in Relation to Rest of World*



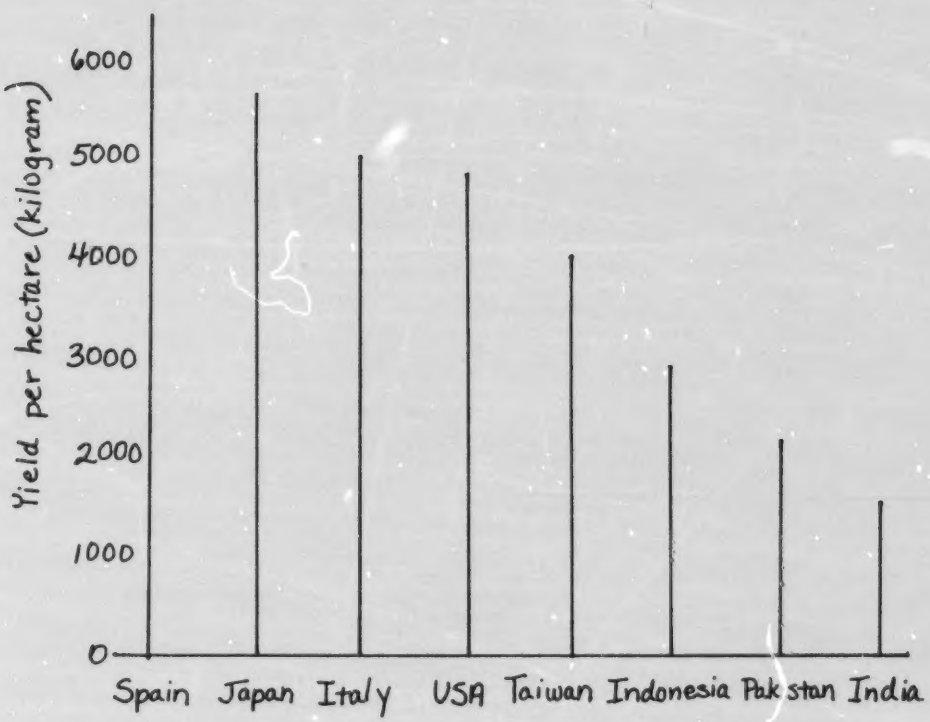

World Population

World Land Area

*This graph is based on content from Herbert H. Gross, et al., *Exploring Our World: The Americas* (Chicago: Follett, 1980), p. 445.

**Figure 9. Bar Graph**

Topic: Efficiency of Rice Production in Various Countries*




*This graph is based on content from Ralph Yohe, et al., *Exploring Our World: Eastern Hemisphere* (Chicago: Follett, 1980), p. 347.

# STRATEGY 11
# Questions That Promote Interpretations

**Grade Levels:** K-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

To help students go beyond literal comprehension of what they read or had read to them to infer unstated relationships, make comparisons, or achieve personal insights.

### Discussion of the Strategy

Interpretive thinking may be prompted by the kinds of questions the teacher asks of students. Interpretation questions ask students to go beyond restating what appeared in their reading. One cannot know if a question calls for interpretation without knowing the context in which the question is asked; that is, a question asking for someone's motives in doing what she did would only be an interpretation question if the reading itself did not state the person's motive and the motive had to be inferred. There are many kinds of interpretive questions, as the examples below indicate:

1. *Questions to explore cause-effect relationships.*

   "What factors do you feel led to the inflation we are having now?"

   "What consequences have followed the invention of the automobile?"

2. *Questions anticipating what is to follow or inferring what came before.*

   "What do you think will happen next?"

   "What came before?"

   "What inventions had to have been made before a war like World War I could have been fought?"

3. *Questions asking students to propose a main idea or theme of a reading when the idea or theme was not stated.*

   "What would be a good title for the news article you just read?"

4. *Questions asking students to classify or group items, sentences, paragraphs, or ideas.*

   "Which of these pictures show Mexican scenes? Which ones show U.S. scenes?"

   "How would you group these pictures? Place them in three piles, each of which shares something in common." (The pictures could be regrouped several times, with students using different common attributes each time.)

   "How would you group these advertisements [or magazine articles, or books, etc.]? Group them in piles according to something they have in common."

5. *Questions asking students to make comparisons (show similarities and differences between two people, places, events, etc.) or contrasts (show differences between two people, places, events, etc.).*

   "How would you compare Reagan's first year in office with that of FDR?"

   "Contrast the Democratic Party with the Communist Party of the Soviet Union."

   "Nazi Party is to Germany, as _____ is to the United States. What would you place in Blank x, and indicate your reasons."

6. *Questions calling for inferences of time, place, and mood.*

   "Look at this photograph. Where and when do you think it was taken? . . . What are your reasons?"

   "Look at these three advertisements. Which of them do you feel came first? . . . Second? . . . Third? Why? How would you date them? Where do you feel they came from?"

   Read to students, or have students read, *Ozymandias* by Percy Bysshe Shelley, and ask them for other names that might be substituted for Ozymandias. (The poem is one that has universal meaning, where time and place do not matter. Lots of names of historical figures may be substituted for Ozymandias (Burmeister, pp. 192-93).

7. *Questions asking students to infer motives of someone based on what the person has said or done.*

   "Why do you think the author of this letter wrote what he did to the editor?"

   "Why do you think Churchill wanted to be Prime Minister of England in the late 1930's? What motivated the man?"

8. *Questions asking students to empathize—place oneself in the position of another person.* (This involves vicarious identification with another person.)

**NOTE:** To teach toward empathy requires that students be able to imagine how other people—real or fictitious—feel or think in specific situations. To experience this kind of thinking, one needs to get beyond generalities. Reading books and other articles that get into specifics is helpful. For example, a book pressed for space might say: "In a recession people have to tighten their belts. Some may lose jobs, others get less pay." Compare these two sentences with newspaper

or magazine articles that describe the effects of a recession on a specific family. Such an article may be found in the January 20, 1982, *Wall Street Journal*, "Auto Workers Hit Hard by Giveups, Signaling Tough Times for Labor." The article describes in detail the consequences for the family of Myron Stoikes of the decision by Chrysler workers to give up their cost-of-living adjustments. To promote empathy, questions like these could be asked of students after they read the article:

> "Class, you are now Mr. Stoikes. Your 1973 station wagon needs a new transmission. It will cost $500. What will you do? . . . How are your kids adjusting to the tight budget? . . . How will you vote if Chrysler indicates it wants the union to accept lower wages for its employees in order to stay in business? . . . Why?"

### Variations of the Strategy

*Ask Questions in Discussions.* Present a sequence of the type of questions suggested above after it is clear that students have comprehended the literal meaning of what they read.

*Include Questions in Duplicated Study Guides.* Include such questions in duplicated study guides to help students read with purpose. The sequence of questions in the study guide is important. It is usually desirable to start with questions asking for recall of information, followed by questions asking for translation of ideas (see Strategy 10), which would then be followed by one or two carefully selected interpretation questions of the sort listed above.

### Source of the Idea

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Middle and Secondary School Teachers.* 2d ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1978, pp. 236-47.

Sanders, Norris. *Classroom Questions.* New York: Harper and Row, 1966.

# STRATEGY 12
# Judging Sources of Information

**Grade Levels:** 5-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

To help students critically evaluate sources of information.

### Discussion of the Strategy

When one engages in a serious analysis of a reading, the individual attends to problems in the reading by using reasoning processes in a conscious way. This strategy and the next three involve students in such analysis.

In this case, the focus is on the decision of how much confidence to place in certain information, given knowledge about the source of the information. This kind of thinking is needed by jurors in deciding how much trust to place in a witness's testimony, by historians in deciding to what extent they trust an individual's account of an event, and by ordinary consumers and citizens.

Shaver and Larkins point out that "our information about past events is always limited and fragmentary, and that any witness is likely to have some accurate and some erroneous information." They suggest asking these *questions about the observer and the observations:*

- Has the observer the relevant expertise, based on education or experience, to make the required observations?
- What biases or sets does the observer have that might have affected his observations?
- Was the observer's emotional state such that it might have interfered with or influenced his observations?
- Does the observer have a history of accurate observations?
- Do the observations agree with those of other independent observers?*

Further, they suggest *certain questions about the report:*

- What are the time and space relationships between the reporter, the event, and the statement of the event?
- Was the reporter an eyewitness, or is he reporting on the basis of someone else's observation? (Distinction between primary and secondary sources of information.)
- If the reporter was not an eyewitness, does he tell who his source was? . . . [Is] his source (or sources) reliable? . . . [Did] he get his information directly from an eyewitness?
- How soon after his observation of the event or after being told about the event did the reporter make his statement about it?
- What biases does the reporter have—judging from his background, from his group affiliations, from his choices of words, from the publication in which the report was made—that might affect his reporting?
- Have the means used to present the data (charts and graphs, and statistics used) affected the picture given?
- Does the report agree with other independent reports? (A variety of sources should be known about and consulted.)*

Finally, Shaver and Larkins remind us that the questions one asks about observers and reports must also be asked about people quoted in reports, and they warn us that any of us—listeners or readers of reports—could distort what we hear or read when we let our biases or other predispositions affect our thinking.

Use of questions like those above will not result in student competence if used one day and never used again. The questions may be introduced one day using one of the variations below and should be used with different materials several times during the school year.

**Variations of the Strategy**

*Examination of Advertisements.* Find advertisements and commercials that make use of testimonials. Have students identify who is making the claims that support the individual products and decide how much confidence to place in the testimonial, based upon their analysis of the source using questions like those listed above.

*Comparing News Stories about the Same Event.* Compare the report of an event as given in such sources as: the local paper, the *New York Times,* the *Christian Science Monitor,* the *Wall Street Journal,* metropolitan newspapers, foreign newspapers and various news magazines. Examine sources of information used in these articles using questions like those listed above.

*Examining Footnotes.* Provide students with pages from books that have footnotes in them and have students decide if they believe the footnotes represent credible, nonbiased sources.

*The Credibility Continuum.* In all of the above variations a continuum may be used to rate how much credibility to assign a source of information.

*James P. Shaver and A. Guy Larkins, *Instructor's Manual, The Analysis of Public Issues* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1973), p. xiv.

**A general scale may be used:**

Source _____ :

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Totally unreliable source of information | | | | Excellent source of information |

Or more specific scales could be used and related to the general scale.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Totally biased source of information | | | | Totally objective source of information |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Uninformed about subject | | | | Expert in subject |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Always untruthful | | | | Honest, a person of integrity |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fully dependent on hearsay | | | | Eyewitness observer |

*Trials.* Have students observe trials or films of trials (available from The Missouri Bar and others) to observe the examination and cross examination of witnesses, asking students to rate the credibility of witnesses, giving their reasons. A variation would be to set up some event in the classroom or cafeteria, select witnesses and have students prepare questions to ask these witnesses to prove, or disapprove, the credibility of the witness's testimony.

*Perception Experiments.* Many psychology books report on studies of people's perception. Have students study those readings and actually try some of these experiments to see to what extent people's statements about their observations can be trusted.

### Source of the Idea

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Middle and Secondary School Teachers.* 2d ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1978, pp. 258-61.

Sanders, Norris. *Classroom Questions*. New York: Harper and Row, 1966, pp. 97-122.
Shaver, James P. and A. Guy Larkins. *Instructor's Manual, The Analysis of Public Issues Program*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1973, pp. 31-41.

# STRATEGY 13
# Analysis of What People Say and Write

**Grade Levels:** 8-12

## Purpose of the Strategy

1. To help students make important discriminations concerning statements, readings, and discussions according to various categories.
2. To help students understand the nature of the knowledge they are dealing with in their social studies classes. (In most social studies classes students do not have such awareness, as teachers readily know.)

## Discussion of the Strategy

This strategy is designed to combat sloppy thinking where people confuse facts and opinions, observations and statements about observations, eyewitness (primary source) accounts and secondary source accounts, and so on.

In the strategy the teacher may follow these steps:

1. Make explicit the categories (see Table II: Categories of Statements) and the rules for sorting ideas into the categories. Use concrete examples.
2. Provide direct practice in applying the categories using matching questions or card sorts.
3. Use the categories frequently throughout the school year in class discussions, written assignments, and other activities.

*Important Categories for Analytic Thinking in Social Studies:*

1. Analysis of *statements one is reading or learning* (see Table II). Ability to recognize and use the categories in Table II is more than an intellectual exercise. It helps students understand the nature of the ideas they are hearing and reading. Such understanding is helpful in judging whether one agrees with what one hears and reads.
2. Analysis of the *nature of issues and disagreements* (see Table III). Many subissues are embedded in issues discussed daily in government and reported in newspapers. To discuss such subissues productively, one needs to know what they pertain to. Most fit into three categories: questions of fact and explanation; questions of definition, or how words are used; and questions of morals and values, or what is proper, desirable, good, and so on.
3. Analysis of *word meanings* by separating *connotations*, which vary from person to person and culture to culture, from *denotations*, the objective meanings of words. It is important to understand that people may differ over denotative meanings of terms, as well as over connotative meanings. To understand persuasive writing it is necessary to understand how the writer will make use of word connotations. For example: A Republican Congressman may say about a Republican President, "Our President certainly is committed to his principles." A Democrat may say about the President, "The current President is dogmatic." Students need to see that "commitment" and "dogmatic" have similar denotative meanings, but that the former word has a positive connotation as opposed to the negative connotation of the latter word.
4. Analysis of statements as to whether they are *inferences* or *implications*. When people draw conclusions from data or from something they have read, they are drawing *inferences*. When people

*(continued on p. 37)*

# Table II
# Categorizing Statements

| Empirical Statements | Normative Statements | Definitional Statements |
|---|---|---|
| These are statements that claim* something happened, frequently happens, is happening, or will happen.<br><br>**Examples**<br><br>*Factual claims* are statements that a single event took place. For example: "Roger got into a fight at school today."<br><br>*Statistical* statements are statements that include numbers that summarize many separate events. For example: "Roger was involved in 20 fights in February."<br><br>*Inferential* statements are statements that express conclusions one draws, based upon consideration of facts and statistics. "Roger likes to fight."<br><br>*Theories* are statements that explain events and make possible prediction of events. For example: "Roger's fighting is an example of a conditioned response, according to Pavlov's classical conditioning theory." | These are statements of a speaker or writer asserting or implying his or her opinion that something is good or bad, right or wrong or that something ought to happen.<br><br>**Examples**<br><br>*Aesthetic opinions* are statements in which a person indicates what he considers to be beautiful in any of several senses of the term. For example: "It is magnificent how ancient Greek artists showed harmony even in conflict."<br><br>*Instrumental opinions* are statements in which a person indicates he believes something should happen in order to get something he values. For example: "It is okay to fight in order to get what one needs."<br><br>*Moral opinions* are statements in which a person indicates what he considers to be proper behavior for oneself or others. For example: "One should only fight in self defense," *or* "One should never fight." | These are statements that explain what a word means or how it is being used.<br><br>**Examples**<br><br>*Definitions by synonym or translation* show what a word means by providing words with synonymous meaning that would have meaning to the reader or listener. Dictionaries define terms in this manner. For example, "A fight is an open or hand-to-hand clash, between two persons." [Random House Dictionary, 1978, p. 334.]<br><br>*Definitions by example* show what a word means by pointing out a specific instance of the term. For example, "A good example of a fight is the conflict that took place between Paul and Sam at lunch yesterday."<br><br>*Definitions by criteria* show what a word means by specifying in detail general properties that must be present in order to say an event fits as an example of the word. Social scientists use such definitions in their research, for they must be able to specify whether a given condition is present and, in some studies, the extent to which it is present. For example, a social scientist studying conditions that lead to fighting behavior would have to specify criteria for fighting behavior, such as observed anger, punching or grappling with intention to hurt, etc. |

*Caution: Not all empirical statements one reads are true.

# Table III
# Categorizing Issues (Disagreements)—Two Examples

| Fact-Explanation Issues | Definitional Issues | Moral-Value Issues* |
|---|---|---|
| Policy Issue: Should the City Council of Center City pass an ordinance to forbid the use of vehicles in City Park on weekends? | | |
| (Such issues pertain to empirical questions—i.e., What happened? What will likely happen? What is happening?)<br>● Are conditions in City Park hazardous now because of traffic?<br>● Does Center City have sufficient resources to enforce the ordinance?<br>● Would the ordinance be likely to reduce accidents in the park?<br>● Would the ordinance create a major disruption of transportation? | (Such issues pertain to how words are used.)<br>● How will "vehicle" be defined? (Are motorcycles vehicles? Are bicycles vehicles? Are tricycles vehicles? Are rowboats in the City Park lagoon vehicles?)<br>● How is weekend defined? (Exactly when does it begin and end?) | (Such issues pertain to what is good or bad, right or wrong, proper or improper.)<br>● Are safety and pleasant, quiet conditions in a park more important than the flow of traffic in Center City? |
| Policy Issue: Should all students in Mrs. Smith's class have to pay 50¢ for refreshments at the Valentines' Day Party? | | |
| ● Can all students afford to pay 50¢?<br>● Are there other ways to pay for refreshments? | ● What sort of refreshments are we talking about? | ● Is it right to compel everyone to pay for refreshments at a school party? |

*In any school committed to education for the role of citizen it is important to help students learn to discuss moral-value issues in productive ways. Such issues are part of the everyday life of all thinking people, including children, and may be found in newspaper articles and editorials, in legislative debates and court proceedings, and in the marketplace of ideas generally. Local districts are in the best position to decide what issues should be dealt with at various levels depending upon the local curriculum and the maturity of the students.

*(continued from p. 35)*

state ideas that suggest conclusions they want their readers or listeners to reach, they are making *implications*. Students may be asked to explain whether statements they are making are their inferences or the author's implications.

### Variations of the Strategy

*Content Analysis of Textbooks*. Students could be directed to sample pages of their textbooks and directed to place each sentence in the category "specific fact," "generalization," "theory," "value judgment," or "definition." Students should then total the number of sentences in each category, determine proportions or percentages of sentences in each category relative to the total, and present their data in pie graph format.

Question: Do textbooks have a common pattern? If so, is their pattern different from that found in news articles, editorials, biographies, et cetera?

*Emotive Word Search.* Have students read news reports, editorials, and advertisements in the newspaper to find specific words that have positive or negative connotations. Have them list those words and place an "+" beside words that seem to them to have positive connotations and a "−" beside words that convey negative connotations. Compare results and discuss with students what insights this activity helped them gain into what they read.

*Labeling Disagreements.* Have students analyze debates and disagreements and ask them to indicate what the disagreement is about at various points in the discussion (about specific factual claims, generalizations, word use, or value priorities). The debates and disagreements students could examine may be found on some news programs like *Meet the Press* and *The Today Show,* in letters to editors of a newspaper, in political debates, and in newspaper editorials.

### Source of the Idea


Newmann, Fred M. and Donald W. Oliver. *Clarifying Public Controversy: An Approach to Teaching Social Studies.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966.

Shaver, James P. and A. Guy Larkins. *Instructor's Manual: The Analysis of Public Issues Program.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1973.

Shaver, James P. and William Strong. *Facing Value Decisions: Rationale Building for Teachers.* Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1976.


## STRATEGY 14
# Analyzing Fallacies in Reasoning

**Grade Levels:** 9-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To help students evaluate what they read by assessing the logic of what they read.
2. To help students learn to think independently (i.e., for themselves).

### Discussion of the Strategy

There are many fallacies in reasoning that find their way into people's conversations, into reports of what people say in newspapers, TV commercials, advertisements, editorials and letters to editors, and in various pieces of propaganda.

*Types of Fallacies:*

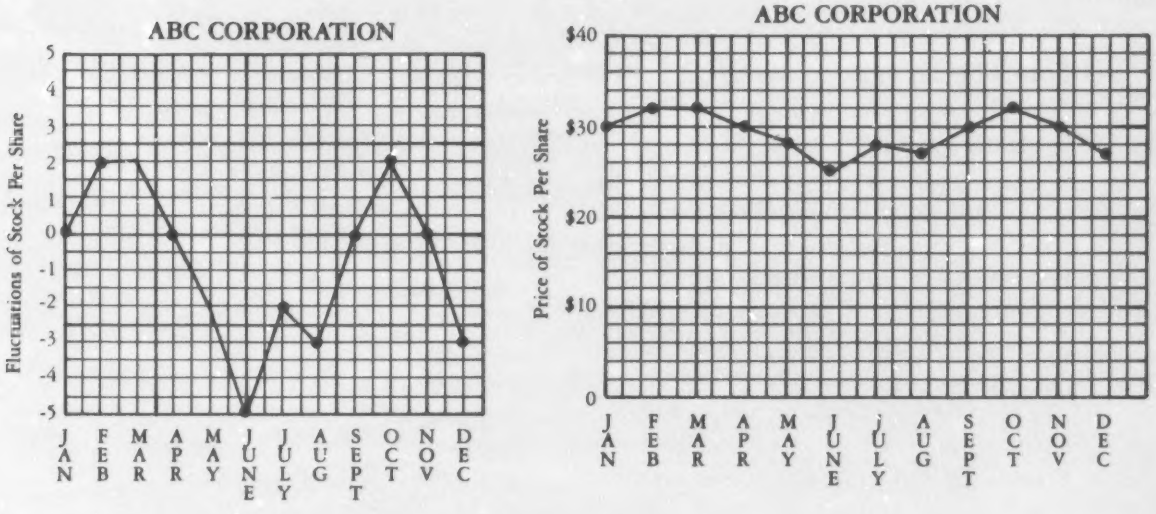
1. *Sloppy Thinking About Causal Relationships*
   a. *Confusing temporal, or time relationships, with causal relationships* (post hoc ergo propter hoc reasoning). The conclusion that because Democrats were in office in the federal government just prior to World War II, Democrats caused World War II is an example of such reasoning. Another instance is that of the young child who concludes pizza causes chicken pox because he came down with chicken pox a few minutes after he ate pizza.
   b. *Failure to be specific about the nature of the causal relationship.* In talking about causal relationships we can be more precise in our thinking if we ask if a cause was a *necessary condition* for the event (a condition without which the event could not have occurred), a *sufficient condition* (a condition that could produce a certain effect; yet the same effect could be produced by another condition), a *necessary and sufficient condition* (a condition that when it occurs is always followed by the effect;

when it does not occur, the event will not occur), or a *contributing condition* (a condition that with other conditions contributes to the occurrence of the event).

2. *Fallacies in Interpreting Statistics.*
   a. *Make certain an appropriate measure of average is used.* There are three possibilities: The mode (the most common score), the median (the middle score), and the mean (the average score, sum of scores divided by number of scores). A teacher reports these scores 61, 62, 63, 66, 66, 67, 68, 69, 71, and 98. How many below-average students does the teacher have? Answer: 3 if the mode (66) is used, 5 if the median (66.5) is used, and 8 if the mean (69.1) is used.
   b. *Consider whether given statistics have the same meaning over time.* Does the fact that a much larger proportion of families today have an income over $10,000 mean families today are much richer than families in the past? That would depend upon how much those dollars are worth (what they will buy).
   c. *Consider whether the shape of a statistical figure is misleading.* The price of a given stock started at $30 and fluctuated by $7 during a year. Consider how different these fluctuations appear in each of the following graphs.

**Figure 10**

Which graph makes the price of the stock look most stable?




3. *False Analogies.* For example, one might claim, "Since a family should pay off all its debts as soon as possible, the United States should pay off the national debt as soon as possible." (In this case the individual fails to take cognizance of the significant difference between personal and national debts.)
4. *Oversimplifications.*
   a. *The either-or fallacy,* which posits only two possible alternatives, when other possibilities do exist. For example, "Either parents rule the family, or the children do," when by contrast some joint decisions may be possible.
   b. *Sloppy, single-cause thinking,* in which the individual assumes one factor caused something to occur when many factors may have contributed to the event. For example, "Those immigrants from _____ (country) are illiterate because they are stupid." (They might have been denied the chance to get an education and might even turn out to be fast learners.)

5. *Stereotypic Ideas*. Stereotypes are oversimplifications in which people or objects are grouped by what they are thought to have in common with a definite underemphasis on uniqueness of the individuals or objects. For example, when women are stereotyped as mothers, the "weaker sex," and as more emotional and less rational than men, much reality is ignored, differences among women are ignored, and the potential and achievements of women are ignored. (See also sloppy deductive reasoning below.)
6. *Irrelevant Responses to Questions*. Often when a person doesn't know the answer to a question or does not want to respond to a question, he or she might give an answer unrelated to what was asked. Examples may be found frequently in programs like *Meet the Press* or *Face the Nation* or in responses students write to essay questions.
7. *Sloppy Inductive Reasoning/Invalid Generalizations*. Inductive reasoning refers to drawing a conclusion from specific instances. Statements like "rabbits are soft and furry," "wars are unpredictable," and "metals expand when heated" are all examples of generalizations induced from examinations of specific examples. A problem is that no one has actually seen all rabbits, all wars, and all metals when heated. Thus, to judge a generalization is not a simple matter. Depending upon how it is stated, one undeniable circumstance might be all that is needed to disprove the generalization. Suffice it to say that our confidence in a generalization becomes stronger when:
   a. There are no contrary instances.
   b. There are many instances supportive of the generalization.
   c. The instances examined are likely to be from a representative (unbiased) sample of the universe represented by the generalization.
   d. The generalization is consistent with scientific laws and theories (e.g., a generalization about prices during depressions is consistent with the law of supply and demand).
8. *Sloppy Deductive Reasoning*. Deductive reasoning refers to syllogistic thinking where there is a major premise, minor premise, and a conclusion. For example:

   Major Premise: All living things eventually die.
   Minor Premise: People are forms of living things.
   Conclusion: People eventually die.

   Here is an example of sloppy deductive reasoning: "Since Mary is a woman, she probably likes housework." This statement may be analyzed as follows:

   Major Premise: Women like housework.
   Minor Premise: Mary is a woman.
   Conclusion: Therefore, Mary likes housework.

   The problem with the above reasoning is that the major premise is not a valid statement: that is, not all women like housework. Many stereotypic statements reflect such sloppy thinking. To evaluate conclusions people reach, it is useful to place them in the above syllogistic format. Many students would be able to point out the problems.

*Teaching Analysis of Fallacies in Reasoning:*

1. Show examples of a particular type of fallacy in reasoning and discuss it with the students. Use several specific examples to help the students understand the particular type of fallacy.
2. Check to see if students understand the particular concepts by having them determine which statements in a set of statements are examples of the type of fallacy and which are not. (This could be done in many ways: card sorts, underlining examples of the fallacy, raising hands when hearing the fallacy, etc.)
3. Have students bring into class examples of the fallacy, perhaps from advertisements, and discuss their examples.
4. Have students practice using their knowledge of types of fallacies in thinking by having them read a variety of material, such as letters to the editor, editorials and advertisements, and direct them to seek examples of logical fallacies in what they have read.

### Variation of the Strategy

Step 2 above may be carried out first to determine if Step 1 is necessary. Step 1 is unnecessary if students are already knowledgeable about the type of fallacy.

### Source of the Idea

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Middle and Secondary School Teachers.* 2d ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1978, pp. 272-81.

Sanders, Norris. *Classroom Questions.* New York: Harper and Row, 1966, pp. 97-122.

Shaver, James P. and A. Guy Larkins. *Instructor's Manual, The Analysis of Public Issues Program.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1973, pp. 31-41.

## STRATEGY 15
# Analysis of Attempts at Persuasion

**Grade Levels:** 2-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To help students develop the ability to detect the objective(s) of a writer or speaker who has persuasive intents.
2. To help students describe the persuasive techniques a writer or speaker uses in given situations.
3. To help students evaluate the logic of what they hear or read.

### Discussion of the Strategy

Have students examine advertisements, editorials, or essays and have them answer such questions as:

1. Who is the author (if known)?
2. Who is the author serving?
3. What, if anything, is the main thing the author wants the reader to believe or do?
4. What techniques does the author use to persuade the reader?
5. To what human emotions, desires, or needs is the author appealing?
6. To what extent do you consider the author's techniques and appeals to the emotions as opposed to one's reason? To what extent do you feel the author emphasized truth as opposed to trickery?

### Variations of the Strategy

*The Oral Variation.* Have students listen to and analyze commercials and speeches using variations of some or all of the six questions listed above.

*The Writing Variation.* Have students write persuasive essays or letters to the editor, or create advertisements to persuade individuals to take certain actions. Have the class analyze the writings using questions like the six above.

### Source of the Idea

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Middle and Secondary School Teachers.* 2d ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1978, pp. 268-72.

# STRATEGY 16
# A Systematic Approach to Writing Reports

**Grade Levels:** 7-12

**Purpose of the Strategy**

1. To help students learn an effective way to select topics for reports.
2. To help students understand and implement a systematic process for writing reports and carrying out investigations.
3. To improve students' writing skills.

**Discussion of the Strategy**

The general strategy consists of these phases:

1. Determine a topic to be investigated.
   - Identify many possible topics.
   - Reduce the number of topics and select the topic to be investigated.
2. Plan how to carry out the investigation.
   - List everything that will need to be done.
   - Arrange those items in sequence.
3. Carry out the investigation
   - Collect information relevant to the topic.
   - Organize the information and write a first draft.
   - Revise the draft (ideally with help from others), complete and sign the final product.
4. Share findings with classmates.
5. Evaluate the processes used.

To assure student success in these efforts, the teacher needs to be alert to the student's ability to carry out every step of the process. Where students are in need of assistance, instruction needs to be planned and implemented.

*Structuring the Assignment.* Short reports, initially, can be carried out more effectively as learning experiences than long ones. For example, one teacher required students in a U.S. history class to write reports on one sheet of paper, the essay on one side and the notes and bibliography on the back of the sheet. Students were required to use at least three separate sources.

The teacher should give serious thought to having students co-author reports by conducting their research, organizing their ideas, and writing in teams of two. Finally, present students with a general outline to show how they will proceed with their reports.

*Helping Students Select a Topic.* Ask students to determine a general area of interest or suggest one to them. Have students individually (1) identify many possible topics related to the general area and (2) narrow down the ideas to those topics that would be of most interest to them.

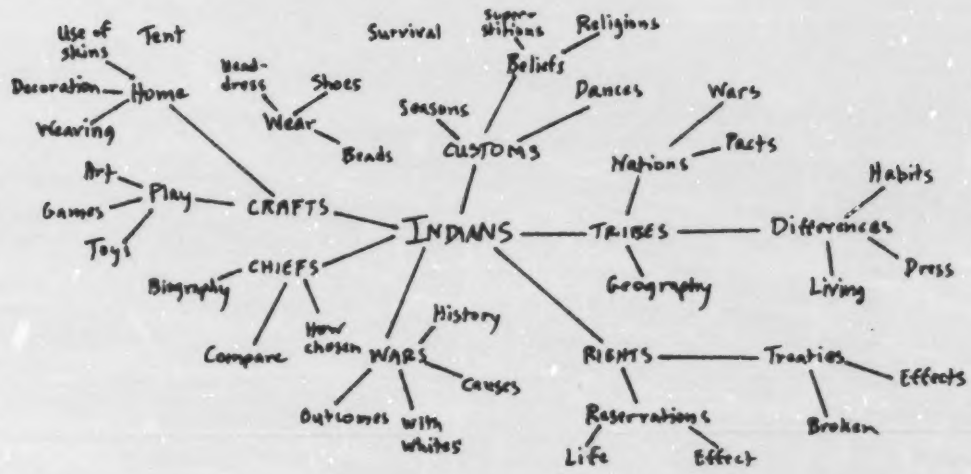
To generate a variety of topics, the students should let their minds run free and write associations down on paper as shown in Figure 11, the "Idea Explosion," as developed in the "R.E.A.L.I.T.Y." Project.*

To select specific topics, have students individually select from their idea explosion sheets three topics that interest them most. The R.E.A.L.I.T.Y. Project directs students to do the following:

> (1) *Read* at least two articles of your choice related to the three ideas you have selected for a possible project. If you need help locating two

*Rolland Smith, "R.E.A.L.I.T.Y." (Responsibility Education Actualizes Learning in Today's Youth.) (Unpublished curriculum materials, a Title IV-C Project.) Tiskilwa, Ill.: Tiskilwa Community Unit School District, 1981.

Figure 11. Idea Explosion




articles, go to the *Reader's Guide* in the library. If you do not know how to use the *Reader's Guide,* ask the librarian.

(2) Schedule an appointment (or chat informally) with at least two people who know something about the ideas you are thinking about for your project.

(3) Fill out the chart . . . [Figure 12]. Under "7" and "8" list other things that you may wish to consider when making your final selection.*

*Helping Students Plan How they will Carry Out Their Investigation.* Two steps need to be carried out: (1) listing of *all* tasks that need to be done and (2) selecting and ordering those tasks in sequence.

1. *Listing of tasks.* To come up with a list of all tasks, group students (or have students group themselves with three or four friends), and have those groups brainstorm as many ideas as they can to carry out the study. One student in the group should be a recorder. Students could be asked to take the initiative to set up groups and to set the times and places for their brainstorming sessions. When brainstorming, they should address themselves to the question: "What things need to be done to carry out my project?" All ideas should be recorded without any criticisms. The aim while brainstorming is quantity of ideas, not quality. The group should generate at least forty ideas, following which the recorder writes a list of the twenty-five he or she considers most important. He should discuss that list with his teacher, who will indicate to what extent the list seems to be complete.
2. *Selecting and ordering tasks.* The next step is to select and order the sequence of steps to be taken to carry out the project. All unimportant tasks should be dropped from the list. The remaining topics should be organized considering such factors as: What is the order of difficulty of the tasks? What tasks must be done earliest, at mid-point in the project, and towards the end of the project? What tasks will take longest to complete? What tasks involve costs, and can those costs be afforded at the beginning, middle, or end of the project? Tasks should be listed in sequence with reasons in mind to justify and explain the sequence if asked to do so. The R.E.A.L.I.T.Y. project suggests that for each task the student complete the sheet in Figure 13.

*Ibid.

**Figure 12. Matrix for Evaluating Alternative Report Topics***

Place an "X" when the answer to the question is true.

| | Possible Project #1 (describe) | Possible Project #2 (describe) | Possible Project #3 (describe) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Things to consider | | | |
| 1. Do I have *time* for this project? | | | |
| 2. Can I afford the money for this project? | | | |
| 3. Will this project hold my interest? | | | |
| 4. Is information about this project available? | | | |
| 5. Will doing this project actually help me improve? | | | |
| 6. Do I have enough background to do this project? | | | |
| 7. ? | | | |
| 8. ? | | | |

TOTALS:

Which project has the most "X's", number 1, 2, or 3? Are you satisfied that you want to do this one? If not, what would you rather do? Explain your reasons _____

_____

*Ibid.

*Carrying Out the Investigation.* Carrying out the investigation is simply a matter of the students implementing the steps listed in their reports. It is important to monitor each students' work and give specific assistance when needed. For example, at appropriate times, show students how to write bibliography and note cards. (Many books are available on study skills that offer suggestions or formats teachers may wish to use.) It is also important to help the student judge if the prepared plan of attack for the report is working well or if it needs any modification.

Once information is collected and organized, students should write their first drafts of the report. Encourage students to review each others' work before revising the report.

*Two additional steps to consider.*

1. Arrange for students to share the results of their investigations in interesting and supportive ways. Involve the class members in reacting to the reports and in giving positive feedback to them.
2. Have students evaluate the processes that they followed. Ask them to write down what they learned from the project and what they would advise themselves and others to do when carrying out such projects in the future.

### Variations of the Strategy

Because of time constraints, some tasks listed above might need to be omitted. It would be possible, for example, to have students engage in the task of selecting a topic for a report without having them actually carry out the report, or students could be given a list of steps for writing the report instead of

**Figure 13. Getting Organized to Carry Out Tasks in an Investigation.***

**TASK # _____**

**Who** - will be involved in doing this task?
- do you need to contact?

**What** - do you need to get from the people you contact?
- materials, equipment, etc., do you need to do this task?

**When** - will you work on this task? (be specific)
- will you complete this task? (3 weeks or less)

**Where** - will you do this task?

**How** - will you do this task? (list steps)

**Why** - are you doing this task? (What's in it for you? How are you benefiting? How does it help your project?)

*Ibid.

designing their own set of steps. Finally, the teacher could specify the topic about which students are to write. In such a case, students will write better reports if the teacher specifies a role the student authors are to assume and specifies the audience for whom the students are writing. Such specific directions would help promote student creativity, making it likely that each paper will be unique.

For example: Imagine yourself as an 18-year-old Missouri boy. It is the fall of 1917, and the United States has just entered World War I. Write a letter to your cousin, a girl your age, who lives in California, and tell her about the war from your perspective, indicating what, if anything, you plan to do about it and how you feel about the war and your plans. Before you write the letter, you will need to read about the war's impact on the homefront in the United States. Use textbooks and detailed historical or fictitious accounts.

A goal districts should strive for is that all of their graduates be proficient in the steps of writing reports as discussed above. These skills provide students with the intellectual power to be independent, creative thinkers, capable of participating actively in today's complex world.

### Source of the Idea

*A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators.* Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980, pp. 125-27.

*A Writing Guide for Missouri Schools, K-12.* Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1979.

Smith, Rolland, "R.E.A.L.I.T.Y." (Responsibility Education Actualizes Learning in Today's Youth.) (Unpublished curriculum materials, a Title IV-C Project.) Tiskilwa, Ill.: Tiskilwa Community Unit School District, 1981.

# STRATEGY 17
# Analogies

### Grade Levels: K-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To clarify meanings of terms.
2. To specify relationships.

### Discussion of the Strategy

Analogies show how items or events are related to each other based on something they have in common.

For example: Collie $\underbrace{:}_{\text{is to}}$ Dog $\underbrace{::}_{\text{as}}$ Siamese $\underbrace{:}_{\text{is to}}$ ———

a. Iranian
b. Tiger
c. Cat
d. American

Answer: c. A collie is a breed of dog, just as a Siamese is a breed of cat.

All kinds of analogies may be used in social studies at various grade levels. Here are some examples that are in multiple choice and fill-in formats. (In case of fill-in formats, more than one correct answer may be possible.)

1. Father : Son : : Mother : _____

   a. Sister
   b. Cousin
   c. Uncle
   d. Daughter

2. Missouri : United States : : Ukraine: _____

   a. Moscow
   b. Soviet Union
   c. China
   d. Georgia

3. Jefferson City : Missouri : : _____ : United States.
4. Reagan : United States : : _____ : Canada.
5. River : Amazon : : Ocean : _____ .
6. Democracy : Capitalism : : Government : _____

   a. Society
   b. Economy
   c. Government
   d. King

7. King George III : Subject : : George Washington : _____

   a. Queen
   b. Citizen
   c. Lawyer
   d. President

## Variations of the Strategy

*Multiple Choice Items.* See Examples 1, 2, 6, and 7 above.
*Fill-in Items, Single Fill-in.* See Examples 3, 4, and 5 above.
*Fill-in Items, Double Fill-in.*

For example:

Gasoline : Automobile : : _____ : _____ .
Stalingrad : World War II : _____ : _____ .

Many correct answers are possible in these cases.

## Source of the Idea

McFarland, Mary. "General Comments on Analogies." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project). Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

# STRATEGY 18
# Evidence for Judgments

**Grade Levels:** K-12

**Purpose of the Strategy**

1. To help students comprehend and interpret what they read.
2. To help students learn to find evidence to support claims they make.
3. To help students express themselves in complete sentences.
4. To promote listening skills in primary grade students (see "Variations of the Strategy").

**Discussion of the Strategy**

Direct students to a portion of printed matter. Below, for example, is a quotation from *Exploring Our World: Communities**, a grade 3 textbook, and below that quotation is a multiple-choice item related to the quotation. (It is important that the multiple-choice item does not use verbatum quotations from the textbook.)

> **Some Nigerian Customs**
>
> In Nigeria all the older members of a family help the younger members. A five-year-old takes care of a baby. A parent makes sure that the family's children go to school and get the things they need.
>
> A younger person always obeys the older members of the family. A four-year-old obeys an older brother or sister. Teenagers obey their parents. A mother and father listen with respect to a grandfather or grandmother.
>
> A younger person shows his respect for an older person in a special way. A young person may greet a chief by lying flat or kneeling on the floor before him. A young man greets his father or grandfather by bowing low.
>
> Nigerian adults consider it important for young people:
>
> a. To be good looking.
> b. To respect people older than they are.
> c. To dance well.
> d. To fight with skill.

* Wedel D. Nielsen, *Exploring Our World: Communities* (Chicago: Follett, 1980), p. 212.

Students should be directed to write a complete sentence formed by combining the question's stem with the correct response:

Nigerian adults consider it important for young people to respect people older than they are.

Next, students should provide evidence from the paragraph to support their claim (statement). Depending on the grade level, this may be done by underlining relevant statements or by writing them out, placing quotation marks around what they copy from the book. Such an item, the students' response, and the students' evidence could be discussed by the entire class.

Two additional points of importance: 1) *Just because Answer b was the correct answer does not mean the other answers are wrong!* There is no evidence in the three paragraphs one way or the other about whether Nigerians value good looks, dancing skill, and fighting skill. 2) Moreover, *Answer b is a correct answer given what the textbook says. The question remains concerning the extent to which the textbook's generalizations are true in all cases, as the textbook implies.* There is a distinction between learning something, which may or may not be fully true, and knowing something that is definitely true.

A teacher who is aware of these two points could help students reach a better understanding of the extent and limits of their knowledge. It is from such understanding that important inquiry can take place.

### Variations of the Strategy

This activity could be carried out in early primary grades using pictures instead of printed text. Questions could be asked of students orally, and responses could be given orally.

### Source of the Idea

Cuenca, Janet. "Introduction to Judgment Lessons." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project). Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981. (The example used does not come from the Parkway Project, or from materials Parkway uses.)

## STRATEGY 19
## Anticipation, Prediction

### Grade Levels: K-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To promote alert, active involvement of students in the act of reading.
2. To include a problem-solving aspect to reading to motivate students.

### Discussion of the Strategy

This strategy has four phases:

1. *Preplanning and selection by the teacher of stimulus materials for students.* The teacher should select pictures or narratives from the text that show or describe a sequence of events.

2. *Predictions by students.* Present to students the first part of the material selected in Phase 1 above. Make certain in discussion that they understand what was given and have them predict what will happen next. Respond positively to their suggestions and record on the board or on a transparency their various predictions.
3. *Students check predictions.* Have students read or see what follows next and make comparisons with what they predicted. Discuss with students: Are any of your predictions the same as what the text showed? May some of your predictions that were not mentioned in the text also be true? (This same approach may be used with pictures as it was with printed material.)
4. *Students summarize what they have learned.*

### Variations of the Strategy

*Pictures in Primary Grades.* The use of pictures with this level student would be more effective than print stimuli. In fact, students could be shown pictures that show a sequence of events placed in random order and then be asked to place them in the proper order, giving their reasons. Phases 3 and 4 could follow.

*Fiction and Case Approach.* When studying a particular period of history or a particular social science concept, fiction, biography, or specific case material may be used to make ideas more concrete for students. The four phases of this approach work very well with such material.

In fact, some materials are designed to be used that way. For example, *Liberty Under Law: Case Studies of the Basic Principles of the Bill of Rights* (available from Xerox Educational Publishers) and *The Bill of Rights in Action* film series (available on loan from The Missouri Bar), present cases in concrete form and provide stopping points for student discussions where they could either predict what will happen or discuss what they believe should happen. In the case of *The Bill of Rights in Action* series, where legal cases and trials are presented, the films end with the judge saying he must make his decision. Since the films do not show what the judge decides, it is necessary to modify Phase 3 in this strategy.

### Source of the Idea

McFarland, Mary. "General Comments on Prediction." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

## STRATEGY 20
# Applying a Decision-Making Model

**Grade Levels:** 4-12

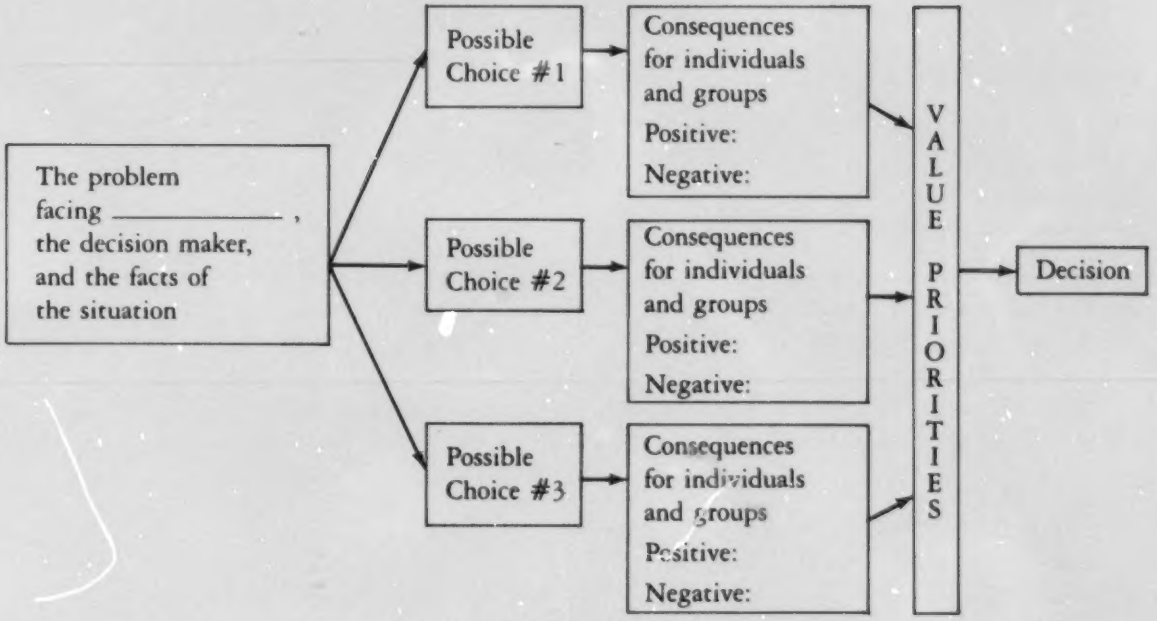
### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To help students discover that decision making has been, and will continue to be, very much a part of people's lives.
2. To help students discover the implications, consequences, and importance of decisions about which they read.
3. To help students become more effective as decision makers through practice in using a decision-making model.

## Discussion of the Strategy

Below is a decision model:

**Figure 14. Decision-Making Model**


The problem facing _____, the decision maker, and the facts of the situation
Possible Choice #1
Possible Choice #2
Possible Choice #3
Consequences for individuals and groups Positive: Negative:
Consequences for individuals and groups Positive: Negative:
Consequences for individuals and groups Positive: Negative:
VALUE PRIORITIES
Decision

Depending upon the age of the students, read a story, show a film, or have students read about people who have to make decisions. Have them identify the decision or decisions those people have to make and consider the alternative choices and probable consequences Students may then discuss and write about the decisions that they would make, given their criteria or value priorities, or that they think the other people would make, given their value priorities.

## Variations of the Strategy

All kinds of occasions for decisions could be discussed, depending upon the age of the students and the topics the curriculum deals with during the particular school year. For example: Should Horton (in the Dr. Seuss story *Horton Hatches an Egg*) take care of Maize's egg? How should Kevin (in *Exploring Our World: Groups*)* spend his money? Should Lincoln have allowed the Confederate states to secede from the Union? What, if anything, should the United States government have done about German expansion in the year 1938? Should the United States be promoting a nuclear arms reduction treaty? Whether the teacher actually uses the chart form of the model or not is a decision for the teacher to make.

## Source of the Idea

LaRaus, Roger and Richard C. Remy. *Citizenship Decision-Making*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1978.

This approach is important to use in history courses so students avoid the common misconception that certain events that happened were inevitable. Events in history and human reactions to events are the result of decisions made by individuals who choose from many options without our advantage of hindsight.

*Quigley, Charles N., et al., *Exploring Our World: Groups* (Chicago: Follett, 1980), pp. 68-69.

# STRATEGY 21
# From Fragments to Sentences

**Grade Levels:** 3-12

**Purpose of the Strategy**

1. To help students learn to communicate in complete sentences.
2. To help students comprehend and review content learned.

**Discussion of the Strategy**

Create sentence fragments based on content students have studied recently, or find such fragments. Often, chapter subheadings are in the form of sentence fragments.

Ask the students to convert the fragments into sentences. They may do so orally (with the teacher or a student recording the sentences on the board), or in writing, either on the board or in their notebooks.

This activity may be done often to help students learn to express themselves in complete sentences.

Here is an example, based on a fragment from *American Government: Comparing Political Experiences* by Judith Gillespie and Stuart Lazarus (Prentice-Hall, 1979), p. 282:

**The fragment:** *The Skill of Making Decisions*
Sentence using the fragment:

The skill of making decisions involves making wise choices among alternatives.

It takes much practice to be competent in the skill of making decisions.

Here is another example, based on a fragment from a grade three textbook *Ourselves and Others* by Sara S. Beattie and Delores Greco (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1980), p. 107.

**The fragment:** *Mapping the Route*
Sentences using the fragment:

Mapping the route home is easy for me.

Mapping the route of our vacation took a long time.

**Variation of the Strategy**

In addition to sentence fragments, students could be given three or four related words (e.g., wants, choices, goods, services) to use in a short paragraph.

**Source of the Idea**

Coulson, Elaine, Curriculum Director of the Center for Economic Education at the University of Missouri-St. Louis and grade 3 teacher, Ladue School District, suggested the variation of the strategy.

McFarland, Mary. "Eliminating Sentence Fragments." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981. (The examples came from materials *not* used in the Parkway School District.)

# STRATEGY 22
# Attentive Listening

**Grade Levels:** 1-3 and 4-12 (see "Variation of the Strategy")

**Purpose of the Strategy**

1. To promote attentive listening.
2. To provide practice in paraphrasing or summarizing (orally or in writing).
3. To provide practice in using reading to check the accuracy of one's ideas.

**Discussion of the Strategy**

1. Read a brief passage from a textbook just before students read the passage. For example, if using the grade 2 book *Exploring Our World: Groups* (Follett, 1980), p. 77, the teacher could read the following passage to the students:

> In a sunny field, a butterfly lands on a branch. Carefully, she lays a tiny egg. She covers the egg with something sticky. This will hold the egg to the branch. Then the mother butterfly flies away. That is all she will ever do for her baby.
>
> One day, a tiny baby will break out of the egg. It will feed on the plant's leaves. It will grow quickly. Soon it will be a butterfly.

2. Ask students to retell the story in their own words.
3. With help from the students write their paraphrase of the story on the board or on an overhead transparency. It may be necessary to help the students get started. For example:

> A mother butterfly lays an egg on a branch of a tree. Then she...

4. Ask students to read the passage to determine how accurate they were in paraphrasing the story.

**Variation of the Strategy**

1. Select a passage from the textbook that is no longer than three paragraphs and that makes complete sense taken out of the context of the book.
2. Inform students that, after you have read the passage to them, they will be asked to write a paragraph summarizing it.

3. Read the passage to the class.
4. Ask students to write the paragraph summary in their notebooks.
5. Ask a few students to write their paragraphs on transparencies or on the board.
6. Have the class discuss strengths and weaknesses of each paragraph.
7. Have students read the passage to check the accuracy of their summaries.

### Source of the Idea

McFarland, Mary. "Listening Attentively/Paraphrasing and Summarizing." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981. (The example used in this strategy comes from text material *not* used in the Parkway School District.)

> To encourage more attentive listening, teachers have found it advisable not to repeat what they say unless they have good reason to do so; and to ask questions of students that let them know whether students have understood what they were told.

## STRATEGY 23
# Question/Requestion

### Grade Levels: K-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To review material heard or read.
2. To provide practice in listening to and in answering questions.
3. To model well-formulated questions and accurate responses for students, all in complete sentences.

### Discussion of the Strategy

1. Read the class a brief passage or description of an incident.
2. Ask students a question about what they heard. Allow them time to think about their responses.
3. Ask students to share their responses to the question, using complete sentences.
4. Ask students to think of a question for the teacher to answer.
5. Respond to the student's question.
6. Repeat Steps 2-5 several times and end the activity at a time you judge to be appropriate, ideally, after important ideas have been explored and while interest is still high.

### Variation of the Strategy

1. Use the above procedure, except that instead of having students listen to a passage in Step 1, have them read the passage.
2. Use the above procedure except that in Steps 3 and 5, have students respond in written form, using markers on transparencies.

### Source of the Idea

McFarland, Mary. "Question/ReQuestion." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

# STRATEGY 24
# The Sponge Activity

**Grade Levels:** 2-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To review recently studied ideas and correct misconceptions.
2. To engage students in thinking about what they will study.
3. To make maximum use of time for instruction.

### Discussion of the Strategy

The term "sponge activity" is used by Madeline Hunter, Professor of Education and Principal of the Laboratory School at UCLA, to refer to an activity that uses transition time, which is frequently wasted, to engage students' minds in active thinking. Such an activity is consistent with recent research which indicates that the more time students are actually engaged in learning, the more they learn. At the secondary level, sponge activities may be used to start every social studies class, involving students in thinking from the moment they enter the classroom. These activities could actually increase the social studies thinking time by 16 days a year (5 minutes × 174 days ÷ 55—length of class period). They may also have two additional side effects: improved classroom control and increased enjoyment by students of social studies classes.

For examples of sponge activities see "Variations of the Strategy" below.

### Variations of the Strategy

*Writing Review Sentences.* In the transition time leading into social studies, indicate on the chalkboard that students are to write one, two, or three sentences that summarize what they learned the previous day in class. While students are writing, take attendance silently and get materials ready for teaching. At an appropriate time, have students share their sentences and compare ideas and correct misconceptions.

*The No-Count Quiz.* As secondary students enter the classroom, have them pick up brief quizzes that cover what they have been studying. Allow students to discuss their thoughts with other students after they have completed the quiz. Then have the entire class discuss items on the quiz. This sponge activity is a learning experience that need not count on a student's grade and need not be collected.

*The Review/Preview Pre-/Post Quiz.* Construct a four-item quiz using the following pattern:

Question 1 reviews yesterday's lesson.

Questions 2 and 3 probe student knowledge regarding material to be covered during this day's lesson.

Question 4 asks students to predict what will be dealt with in the next lesson and asks them to give a reason why they made the prediction they made.

Students should be informed that they ought to know the answer to Question 1, but that they could not be expected to know Questions 2-4 at the beginning of class. They should be able to answer Questions 1-3 by the end of the class period. Such information and the questions may be placed on paper, on a transparency, or on the chalkboard.

Begin the lesson discussing Question 1, then move on to teaching the lesson, making certain to teach the content of Questions 2 and 3. Do not cover Question 4.

Toward the end of class give students the same quiz as a posttest. They should be successful on Questions 1-3. Scores on the posttest may either be counted toward grades or not. Extra credit might be awarded to the students who give the *best* answers to Question 4. Discuss answers to all four questions at the end of class.

*Data/Questions.* Place a map or some statistical data on a screen using an overhead projector. Instruct students, using the chalkboard, to make up questions that can be answered using the map or the data. A

useful variation is to ask students to write some questions that cannot be answered by using the map or the data. At the appropriate time, ask students to share some of their questions for classmates to try and answer. The map and data used should relate to what students have been studying or to what they will soon study.

*Concept/Examples.* List on the board concepts students are studying ("opportunity cost," "revolution," "family," "democratic decision making," etc.). Instruct them to list and describe examples of whatever concepts are listed. At the appropriate time, discuss students' examples.

### Source of the Idea

The concept of sponge activity was discussed by Madeline Hunter at a workshop for educators carried out in Kansas City (Avila College) and sponsored by the Learning Exchange on January 8, 1982.

The variations—Writing Review Sentences, The Review/Preview Pre-/Post-Quiz, and Data/Questions—were suggested by Mary McFarland, "Writing Review Sentences/Paragraphs," "Review/Focus/Project: Pre-Posttest," and "Question Asking/Writing." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

## STRATEGY 25
# Sequencing and Time Lines

### Grade Levels: K-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

To help students place events in order and discuss reasons supporting alternative sequences.

### Discussion of the Strategy

Hang a clothesline in the classroom. Show students pictures and ask them to place them on the clothesline (using clothespins) in a sequence that makes sense to them. Have students discuss the sequences they propose. Pictures could be of seasons of the year, the same person at different ages, days of the week, activities students do each day, and so on. Clear the line at the end of the activity so that it may be used for other pictures.

### Variations of the Strategy

1. After students are familiar with the strategy, have them search for pictures of their own on a specific topic (e.g., pictures of people of various ages, pictures of different seasons, etc.). Students could make up stories to go along with the pictures and tell their stories to the class.
2. The strategy could be used with older students using content they are studying, such as events in history, inventions, human behavior, transportation, scientific discoveries, and so on. A bulletin board could be substituted for the clothesline, and students could tack the pictures in sequence on the bulletin board and write about the sequence of events in complete sentences or simple paragraphs.

### Source of the Idea

McFarland, Mary. "Sequencing and Time Lines for Young Students." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

# STRATEGY 26
# Tips for Writing in Social Studies

**Grade Levels:** 3-12

**Purpose of the Strategy**

To help students communicate with others in writing, clearly and effectively.

**Discussion and Variations of the Strategy**

The Missouri State Department of Elementary and Secondary Education has produced two publications that include ideas on writing that would be of interest to social studies teachers: *A Writing Guide for Missouri Schools, K-12* (pp. 108-11) and *A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators* (pp. 125-27). The suggestions that follow come from these publications:

*Setting a Tone to Encourage Writing.*

1. Publish students' writing on a classwide, schoolwide, or districtwide basis to show that their writing is valued.
2. Read to students, occasionally, samples of effective writing related to social studies. Invite students to do so, too.
3. Share your writing with students. Write in your own journal when students write in theirs.
4. Use reading materials that reflect the kinds of writing people encounter in their everyday life: letters, summaries of meetings, editorials, news reports, short stories and poetry in magazines, and so on. Examples should be appropriate to the specific social studies course (e.g., a science fiction short story may be very appropriate for an elective course in futuristics).
5. Have older students write for younger students.
6. Always emphasize that writing is one form of communication which enables a person to communicate his or her ideas to other people.

*Using Writing as a Tool to Help Students Learn.*

1. Follow these steps to establish a good writing assignment:
   - Decide what specific *content* and *skills* you want to teach through writing.
   - Select the kind of writing *task* that will teach the defined content or skills (report, personal account, summary, free response, etc.). A focused task helps students learn factual content, whereas broader, more complex assignments evoke speculation, inference, and interpretation.
   - Define the *audience* for the writing. This is not the same as the grader; for example, the audience could be a person who knows nothing about the topic, a committee wanting to make a decision, an editor of a conservative newspaper, a critic who disagrees with the writer, a specific, well-informed audience, etc.
   - Define a *voice* or *position*. Should the writer persuade? be humble? argue? reveal personal qualities? entertain? display factual knowledge?
   - Allow *choice*, if possible.
   - Present the assignment so students understand the task and how to accomplish it. Inform them of all your requirements and expectations: length of product, utilization of a specified body of knowledge, and format of final draft (ink copy, typed copy, rough draft included, etc.).
2. Provide some data relevant to the unit being studied. Students are to write paragraphs based on the data given. Next, they summarize each paragraph in one sentence. This writing is shared but not graded. You and your students will discover that the act of writing leads to new information and conclusions, transcending discrete data or seemingly unrelated concepts. Writing, therefore, may be used to enhance the student's ability to combine and interpret data.
3. Select key concepts from reading assignments and express them in short, kernel sentences. Display these on a transparency and have students orally combine the key sentences into one

longer sentence. This allows them to focus on essential information from the reading and also to experiment with sentence patterns. You may also direct them to change the longer sentence so that a certain kernel idea is stressed. For example:

*Kernel sentences*

a. Archaeologists use cameras.
b. Archaeologists need pencils and paper.
c. Archaeologists keep records.
d. Records must be accurate.

*Combined sentence*

Archaeologists use cameras, pencils, and paper to keep accurate records.

*Kernels C and D stressed*

Since archaeologists must keep accurate records, they need pencils, paper, and cameras.

4. Ask students to put titles on papers they write. This gives them practice in extracting main ideas.
5. Select ideas with social or emotional implications from material to be studied (e.g., civil rights in the social studies class). Ask students to do a timed (10 minutes) free writing on a situation where they dealt personally with the social or emotional issue (e.g., write about a time when you felt you were not fairly treated). This personal account will encourage students to see the relevancy of the material *prior* to, rather than after, studying it.
6. Provide a series of statements about a topic. Ask students to rank the statements in order of importance. Next, ask them to write summary paragraphs with the most important information either at the beginning or the end. These paragraphs are good for test reviews.
7. Select passages from content books that hold vital ideas for what is to be studied and stress composition elements. For example, note use of color or bold-face type, highlight linking words, sequence words, statements of main idea, concrete details, etc. Point out the pattern of organization—general to specific, example to conclusion, personal anecdote to larger idea, etc.
8. Help students improve their reading comprehension as well as their writing by alerting them to the signals for certain kinds of relationships. If students are reading to answer a "when question," for example, they can be alerted to look for words that signal time relationships (*while, then, before,* etc.). Following are nine categories that signal common relationships in reading and writing:
   - Signals of Equality or Similarity Between Ideas: *not only . . . but also, furthermore, likewise, in addition, similarly, moreover, at the same time, also, first, etc., and.*
   - Signals of Inequality or Dissimilarity Between Ideas: *but, on the the contrary, nevertheless, meanwhile, on the other hand, otherwise, in spite of, although, despite, conversely, however, yet.*
   - Signals of a Conclusion or Summary: *thus, therefore, consequently, in other words, all in all, accordingly, in retrospect, hence, in conclusion, in brief, as a result.*
   - Signals of an Important Point: *undoubtedly, without question, significantly, without doubt, without precedent, absolutely.*
   - Signals of Time Relationships: *after, before, during, finally, while, when, soon.*
   - Signals of Space Relationships: *beside, under, over, next to, here, there.*
   - Signal of Cause and Effect Relationships: *because, since, so, that.*
   - Signal of Conditional Relationships: *if, unless, though, provided that.*
   - Signal of Order or Sequence: *first, second, then, next, following, finally.*
9. In class discussion, ask students to first *write* a response or opinion. This allows them to think through what they know before orally expressing it in front of their classmates. They must cluster ideas and state relationships among pieces of information. In so doing, they discover and clarify what they know. Collect these responses without names so that you gather helpful feedback from all students, even those who do not speak out in discussions.
10. During discussion, appoint a class recorder to take notes on a ditto master or a transparency. This recorder is then in charge of the summary or review.

*Using Writing to Evaluate What Students Learn and Helping Students Succeed on Tests.*

1. Develop and make public to students the criteria that will be used in evaluating specific written assignments. It is often useful to have students contribute suggestions for criteria and how much weight to give various criteria.
2. Make certain students understand what test terms mean so that they use them properly. Such terms include *list, discuss, compare, contrast, defend, define,* and *persuade.*
3. If a test asks for an essay or short-answer response, define a specific purpose and audience and follow the steps for a good writing assignment, given above.
4. Conduct "dry runs" where students free write on a topic in preparation for a test.
5. Ask students to contribute topics for an essay test. Prior to the test, give students three or four of these topics and tell them that one will be on the test. Prior to the test, allow class time to frame a response.
6. Avoid test questions that ask students to circle answers or select one-word answers. This encourages use of fragments. If multiple-choice items are used, require students to write answers in complete sentences, including the multiple choice endings. This means that all the choices must form complete sentences.
7. Occasionally include a test question such as, "Write on a question for which you studied, but that did not appear on the test," or "Tell me something you learned." This could be used as an option for another question and provides a chance for students to express what they DO know, rather than be penalized for what they do not know.
8. As regards comments on student papers: (a) Keep comments brief and focused on the main points of the assignment. (b) Be as positive as possible. (c) Avoid lots of red marks. Help students with one or two problems at a time. (d) Use questions to help the student judge his or her own writing.

*Practical Tips on Evaluating Student Writing—Making the Burden of Grading Bearable.*

1. Teacher evaluations need not focus on all aspects of essay writing. The teacher needs to decide what aspects of the writing relate most directly to the purpose of the assignment. Then, the teacher would read paying attention *only* to those aspects of the writing. For example, if students are to write a letter to a Senator favoring or opposing restrictions on immigration from a part of the world where there is a refugee problem, the teacher would look for matters like these: (a) Did the student clearly identify his/her point of view? (b) Did the student identify reasons that clearly support that point of view? (c) Did the student provide strong supporting evidence and appropriate, convincing emotional appeals? By looking only for such matters, evaluation time should be reduced.
2. The teacher need not grade the quality of each student's written work every time. The teacher could check all papers to see if they were completed, and grade the quality of one-fifth of the papers each time. This way, instead of grading 150 papers, the teacher need grade only 30 papers, and the quality of the comments should improve. Students should understand that this is a reasonable way for a busy teacher to help students improve the quality of their written work, especially when the teacher explains to all students how he or she examined the papers sampled and shows students how to evaluate their own papers.
3. The teacher need *not* be the only person to evaluate student writing. Students could be asked to evaluate their own writing using a list of questions designed by the teacher. Among other things, students could be asked to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their writing and their plans to improve it.
4. Student writing could also be evaluated by peers, using an approach like this: Students would read their papers slowly to fellow students in small groups. Their peers would then try to tell the student what they infer the thesis is, first expressing themselves in several sentences, then doing so in one sentence, and finally doing so with one word found in the paper and also with one word *not* found in the paper. Such a strategy should help students learn whether their writing

communicated its intended message clearly. Students may also write reactions in the margins of their classmates' papers.

### Source of the Idea

*A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators.* Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980, pp. 125-27.

*A Writing Guide for Missouri Schools, K-12.* Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1979, pp. 108-11.

## STRATEGY 27
# What Else Do I Need to Ask?

**Grade Levels:** 4-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To promote an active stance by students toward reading.
2. To promote student curiosity.
3. To promote student question-asking skills.

### Discussion of the Strategy

At an appropriate time, usually the beginning of a unit, have students read the introductory paragraph or paragraphs of a unit in the textbook and list questions raised, but not answered, by the introduction.

### Variations of the Strategy

1. As a followup to the strategy above, tell students that you are giving each of them five asterisks. They are to place them beside any questions they consider especially important. They may, in fact, use all five of their asterisks on one question if they feel it is five times as important as any other question. Call on students to read their questions with 5, 4, 3, or 2 asterisks beside them, and ask them to justify their selections.
2. Keep the list of questions developed in the strategy above, and toward the end of the unit give them back to the students to see how many questions had been answered by the end of the unit. Unanswered questions could be used for research papers.
3. At the end of a unit the question could be asked: "What did the textbook omit that is important for the topic of study of this unit?"

### Source of the Idea

McFarland, Mary. "What Else Do I Need to Ask?" (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

# STRATEGY 28
# True/False/Prove

**Grade Levels:** 3-12

**Purpose of the Strategy**

1. To promote active listening.
2. To help students use headings in the book to locate information rapidly.
3. To help students evaluate the accuracy of claims using a textbook.
4. To help students correct false claims.

**Discussion of the Strategy**

1. Select a section of the book students will soon study. Read and discuss with students the headings and subheadings.
2. From that section of the book, read a statement verbatim, paraphrase an idea, or state something that is false.
3. Have students search the reading and report on whether the statement was true or false. If it is false, have them indicate how it should be changed.

**Variation of the Strategy**

The strategy could also be implemented as a review. In that case, Phase 1 above should be omitted, and in Phase 3 students should indicate whether the statement is true or false *before* they check the accuracy of the statement in the reading.

**Source of the Idea**

McFarland, Mary. "True/False/Prove." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

# STRATEGY 29
# Take, Clarify, Defend a Stand— Case Study Approach

**Grade Levels:** 7-12

**Purpose of the Strategy**

1. To help students determine relevant facts in particular problem situations.
2. To help students identify issues raised by specific cases.
3. To help students decide what issues are of utmost importance (not everyone may agree) and describe how the issues relate to each other.
4. To help students determine their own positions on issues and develop factual and logical support for them.
5. To promote discussion of the issues among the students in order to improve their reasoning and decision-making processes.

## Discussion of the Strategy

In free societies like ours, many social questions are controversial. By "controversial" we mean that intelligent, patriotic, adult citizens of good will are in disagreement about what a problem is and how to solve it.

Examples of controversial social questions are easy to find in any daily newspaper: Should taxes be raised to increase or maintain certain government services, or should they be held constant or perhaps reduced? Would candidate X or candidate Y be the best senator for Missouri? Are current approaches to dealing with crime adequate? What should be the balance between public and private enterprise in the United States economy? To what extent should the United States support free trade among nations, or should it protect some of its industries that are falling behind competitively?

Examples may also be found at home and at school: Parents may disagree on whether a daughter should work her way through college or concentrate fully on getting good grades and enjoying social life on campus. Parents may disagree on whether to save for a major purchase or to use income for current consumption. Parents may disagree on what is the proper curfew hour and on rules for using the family car. In schools, educators may disagree on how to define "the basics" and what balance should exist between "basics" and "nonbasics." Educators may also disagree on what courses should be required or elective or on the proper balance between rights and duties.

Such questions are very common in the United States. They make life more complicated; they are also signs that we live in a system where people have much freedom to make decisions and to have influence on decision makers.

The purpose of this strategy is to help students understand some of the important social problems citizens in our society encounter and learn how to deal rationally with those problems. The aim is not to get students to think uniformly, but to help improve their reasoning. This type of reasoning is consistent with the type of thinking jurists use in United States courts. Since we want to show that this type of reasoning is possible with young children, we are using as an example a social question elementary students would find of interest and could handle. Here is the issue:

> In the local community the city's free swimming pool is expensive to operate. The city council is discussing what to do about the pool. They are convinced the city cannot afford to continue providing free swimming pool service in the future.

Here is an approach for teaching students to deal with the issue:

1. *Gather information about the case.* The teacher could present the above information in the form of a story he or she tells to the students; the information could be read by students from the local newspaper; or someone from the city council could visit the class and tell students about the problem.

   In dealing with other problems students could find information from a variety of sources: newspaper or magazine articles, textbooks, films and filmstrips, television programs, or study prints. It is often desirable to present students with information leading up to a point where a person or group is at the point of making a decision which will have implications for other people.

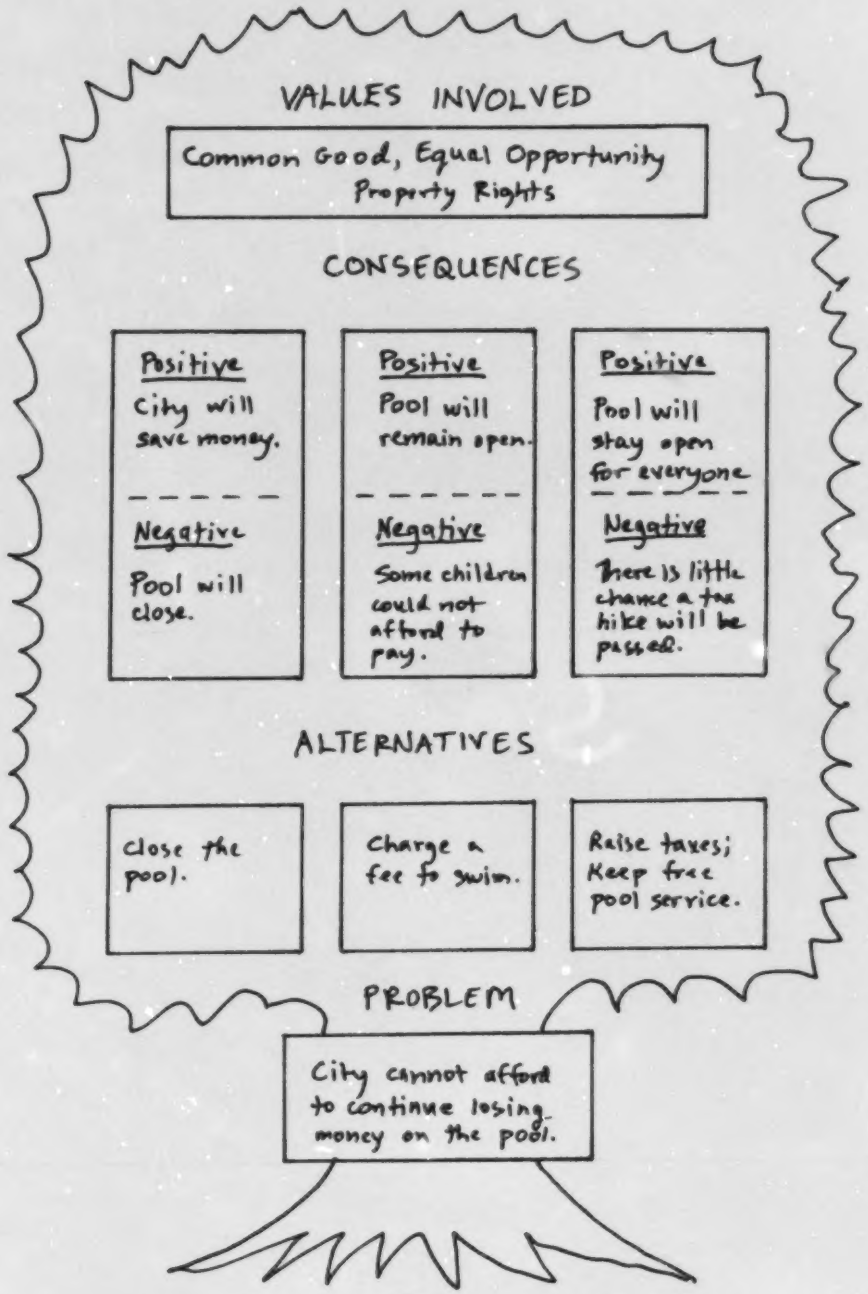
2. *Make certain students understand what decision needs to be made and who is to make the decision.* In this case students need to understand that the decision pertains to the city losing money on the swimming pool and that the decision makers are the city council members. They might be asked to assume that they are city council members and to indicate what decision they think they would make. At this point they need not share their decisions with others.

   In other cases, the decision makers might be judges, members of a jury, members of Congress, citizens given a petition to sign, voters in voting booths, members of the student council, and so on.

3. *List the facts of the case.* Students should describe in their own words the nature of the swimming pool problem. They may even do some digging for new information if they feel they have a significant gap in the information that they were given.

4. *Identify alternative decisions and their consequences.* This may be done in flow chart form, as was done in Strategy 20, or as a Decision Tree.*

Figure 15. The Decision Tree




* The decision-tree concept was developed by Roger LaRaus and Richard C. Remy, *Citizenship Decision-Making* (Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley, 1978).

5. *Relate alternative decisions and their consequences to high-level social values of the American political tradition.* These values include freedom (speech, press, religion, association, etc.), domestic tranquility, justice, equal opportunity, general welfare (the common good), property rights, privacy, due process of law, and so on. In the issue under discussion, the values involved include the common good, equal opportunity, and property rights (see step 6).
6. *Determine which values are promoted and restricted by the various alternatives.* A matrix, like that shown below, might be used:

| Alternatives | Common good | Equal opportunity | Property rights |
|---|---|---|---|
| Close pool | – | | + |
| Charge admission | + | – | + |
| Raise taxes and do not charge admission | + | + | – |

If students reason as shown in the matrix, closing the pool could be seen as consistent with property rights (keeping taxes low), but would have a negative effect on the common good (children having access to a swimming pool); charging admission would be consistent with property rights and the common good, but would not further equal opportunity (some poor children would be unable to use the pool), and the raising of taxes to pay for the pool could reduce property rights to some extent, but would be consistent with the common good and equal opportunity.

7. *Take a stand and write reasons justifying one's position prior to class discussion of the issue.*
8. *Discuss the issue.* This could be done in many ways. In this case, a mock city council meeting might be held where some students assume roles of city council members and others assume roles of community citizens of various ages and from various sectors of the economy who have testimony to offer. If this is about a real case in the local community, students could actually interview people they represent to help them assume their roles in as realistic a manner as possible.
9. *Reexamine and revise the stand taken in Phase 7 above.* Students may be asked to share their positions with each other for initial comments and suggestions before they turn in their final position paper.
10. *Display position and celebrate as a class how far they have come in their thinking about the issue.* Show them how this is precisely the kind of thinking responsible adults in our society need to use daily if they are to be wise decision makers.

### Variations of the Strategy

Each teacher needs to examine the above phases of the strategy to determine which ones to include and emphasize. A simpler version may be found in Strategy 20. The version just presented, however, has a special strength: it relates decisions to the social values of the American political tradition.

A major type of variation is in the kinds of cases to be considered. There are many specific problem situations people faced in the past that could be dealt with in history classes; proposed economic policies could be discussed in economics courses; political reforms could be discussed in government courses; land-use questions could be examined in geography courses, and so on. It is important that questions dealt with be ones that are relevant to course objectives and content, be appropriate to the student's level of

maturity and their interests, be important, and be regarded as proper topics for discussion in the local community.

### Source of the Idea

*A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators*. Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 1980, pp. 36-37, 137-40.

LaRaus, Roger, and Richard C. Remy. *Citizenship Decision-Making*. Reading, Mass.: Addison Wesley, 1978.

McFarland, Mary. "Case Study Approach." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981.

Newmann, Fred M. and Donald W. Oliver. *Clarifying Public Controversy: An Approach to Teaching Social Studies*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966.

## STRATEGY 30
# Who, What, When, Where, How, Why, What's the Difference?

**Grade Levels:** K-12

### Purpose of the Strategy

1. To help students learn to select information embedded in written material and relate that information to a specific category.
2. To help students recognize when written material is not related to a specific category.
3. To help students comprehend what they read through translating ideas from one format to another.
4. To help students learn to paraphrase and summarize information.
5. To teach students to combine ideas (sentences) to form a coherent paragraph.

### Discussion of the Strategy

This strategy, best used for reading about incidents or events, may be used with newspapers and passages from history books, articles, or textbooks. In the strategy students should answer each of these questions, if possible:

| | |
|---|---|
| Who | (Who is involved? The Who may be a person, a group, a company, a nation, a union, etc.) |
| What? | (What is the event) |
| When? | (When did the event take place?) |
| Where? | (Where did the event take place?) |
| How? | (How did the event take place? Was there a sequence of sub-events that make up the bigger event?) |
| Why? | (Why did the events occur? What motivated the people?) |
| What's the Difference? | (What difference does the event make? To whom does the event make a difference? Does the event make a difference to the student completing this exercise? How?) |

Answers should be written in succinct sentences, placed in a logical order and combined into a well constructed summary paragraph.

Below is an example of how this strategy could be carried out using the article "In This Georgia Town, It's Illegal Not to Own a Gun," *Christian Science Monitor,* March 17, 1982, p. 3. The article described an ordinance passed by the Kennesaw, Georgia, City Council that requires all heads of households to maintain firearms and ammunition excepting cases where they are handicapped, felons, or objectors for reason of religion.

WHO: This is about the Kennesaw, Ga., city council, people of Kennesaw, the National Rifle Association (NRA), and the National Coalition to Ban Handguns.

WHAT: The Kennesaw, Ga. city council passed a law to make it illegal for a head of household not to own a gun. There are a few exceptions.

WHEN: The law was probably passed during early March, 1982. It takes effect on March 25, 1982.

WHERE: The law was passed in Kennesaw in the northwest part of Georgia.

WHY: City council members were upset about the town of Morton Grove, Illinois, passing a law to ban firearms with a few exceptions.

HOW: The law was passed by unanimous vote.

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE: The law will restrict freedom of choice in Kennesaw, the choice not to own or have firearms in one's home. The law may cause a prospective robber to think twice before entering a home in Kennesaw, Ga. The law will be hard to enforce. The event causes me to wonder about when a law

serves the best interest of the citizenry and when it does not.

Upset about a law passed in Morton Grove, Illinois, that banned most firearms from town, the Kennesaw, Georgia city Council passed a law by unanimous vote to make it illegal for a head of household not to own a gun. Although the law takes effect on March 25, 1982, the law raises more questions than it seems to answer: Will it reduce crime in Kennesaw? How could it be enforced? Is it constitutional, in view of the fact that it forces families to purchase something they may not want? Citizens all over the United States and groups like the National Rifle Association and the National Coalition to Ban Handguns are interested in what will happen in this northwest Georgia town.

Different students would write different summaries of the same article. Students could listen to and compare what they wrote, and papers could be displayed on the bulletin board.

### Variations of the Strategy

For primary grade students it is not desirable to use all seven questions listed above. It is possible to use pictures that tell a story as the stimulus material for the strategy. Students could give answers to the questions for the teacher to write on the chalkboard or on an overhead transparency.

### Source of the Idea

McFarland, Mary. "Who, What, When, Where, Why, How, What is the Difference?" (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, K-6, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981. (The idea for this strategy was suggested to Dr. McFarland by Barry Beyer from Carnegie-Mellon University at a workshop.)

# STRATEGY 31
# Pronouns and Antecedents

**Grade Levels:** K-6

**Purpose of the Strategy**

1. To promote comprehension.
2. To promote improved listening skills.

**Discussion of the Strategy**

1. Read to students a portion of a story or a portion of a reading from a textbook.
2. Reread the passage and whenever you come to a pronoun, stop and ask students to write down (or say to themselves) the word to which the pronoun refers.
3. Call on students to say out loud the antecedent they identified for the pronoun under consideration.
4. Reread the passage and show students what the correct antecedent happens to be.
5. Continue with the strategy (Steps 2-4).

**Variations of the Strategy**

Reproduce a selection students are to read. The selection may come directly from a unit students are studying. Number each paragraph, and within each paragraph number each pronoun, as is shown below.

Par. 1 **Ferdinand and Isabella** King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain were very interested in Columbus's idea. But Spain was at war. Wars are very expensive. Spain had no money to pay for such a costly voyage. Columbus would have to wait.

Par. 2 While he[1] was waiting, Portuguese explorers were sailing farther and farther down the coast of Africa. Finally, in 1488, Bartholomeu Dias, a Portuguese sea captain, rounded the southern tip of Africa. While he[2] did not sail on to India, a new trade route to the Indies was ready to open. And Columbus still had not been able to test his[3] idea. At last he[4] decided to leave Spain early in 1492.

Par. 3 While on the road home, Columbus was stopped by a messenger from the palace. King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella had finally decided to help him[1]. Spain still had very little money to spare, but Columbus must sail!*

Have students number their paper with a number corresponding to each paragraph and to each pronoun within each paragraph. Have students write the antecedent for each pronoun, then check the papers.

**Source of the Idea**

Deuser, Cecilia. "Pronouns and Antecedents." (Unpublished curriculum materials from Skills Applied in the Content Area of Social Studies, a Title IV-C Project.) Chesterfield, Mo.: Parkway School District, 1981. (The reading quoted in this strategy comes from a textbook *not* used in the Parkway School District.)

* Arnsdorf, Val E., et al., *The United States and Its Neighbors* (Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1982), p. 69.

# Resources

The following resource materials may be examined for additional ideas on teaching basic skills in social studies while enhancing social studies learning.

The following Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education Publications are available from:

Missouri Testing and Evaluation Service
408 Hitt St.
Columbia, Missouri 65211

*A Guide to Social Studies Curriculum Development for Missouri Educators,* 1980.

*A Writing Guide for Missouri Schools, K-12,* 1979.

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Available from:

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES (NCSS)
3615 Wisconsin Ave., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20016

Patton, William E., ed. "Improving the Use of Social Studies Textbooks." *NCSS Bulletin 63,* 1980.

The following articles appear in:
*Social Education,* the Journal of NCSS.

Beyer, Barry K. "Teaching Basics in Social Studies." Vol. 41, no. 2 (February 1977), pp. 96-104.

Beyer, Barry K., and Anita Brostoff, eds. "Writing to Learn in Social Studies." Vol. 43, no. 3 (March 1979), pp. 176-97.

Lunstrum, John P. "Reading in the Social Studies: A Preliminary Analysis of Recent Research." Vol. 40, no. 1 (January 1976), pp. 10-17.

Roselle, Daniel. "Ten Basic Suggestions to Social Studies Students to Improve Your Writing." Vol. 41, no. 2 (February 1977), pp. 113-19.

*How to Do It Series—Series 2*

"Improving Reading Skills in Social Studies." No. 1, 1977. (Joseph E. Mahony)
"Effective Use of Films in Social Studies Classrooms." No. 2, 1977. (Sam Bryan)
"Reach for a Picture." No. 3, 1977. (Leonard S. Kenworthy)
"Using Questions in Social Studies." No. 4, 1977. (Catherine Cornbleth)
"Oral History in the Classroom." No. 8. (George L. Mehaffy, Thad Sitton and O. L. Davis, Jr.)
"Graphing: A Stimulating Way to Process Data." No. 10, 1980. (Michael L. Hawkins)
"Using Television News, Documentaries, and Public Affairs Programs in the Social Studies." No. 12, 1981. (James Dick)
"Family History: Coming Face-to-Face With the Past." No. 15, 1981. (Dennis J. Thavenet)

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Available from:

SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION CONSORTIUM
855 Broadway
Boulder, Colorado 80302

Beyer, Barry K. *Back-to-Basics in Social Studies*. Publication no. 212, 1977.

Beyer, Barry K., and Robert Gilstrap, eds. *Writing in Elementary School Social Studies*, 1982.

Stockhaus, Stuart, ed. *Selected Social Studies Skills: 88 Reinforcement Lessons for Secondary Students*. Publication no. 236, 1979.

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Other:

Burmeister, Lou E. *Reading Strategies for Middle and Secondary School Teachers*. 2d ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1978.

Herber, Harold. *Teaching Reading in Content Areas*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Lunstrum, John P., and Bob L. Taylor. *Teaching Reading in the Social Studies*. Urbana, Ill.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, 1978. (1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, Ill., 61801).

Sanders, Norris M. *Classroom Questions: What Kinds?* Scranton, Pa.: Harper and Row, 1966. (Keystone Industrial Park, Scranton, Pa., 18512).

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